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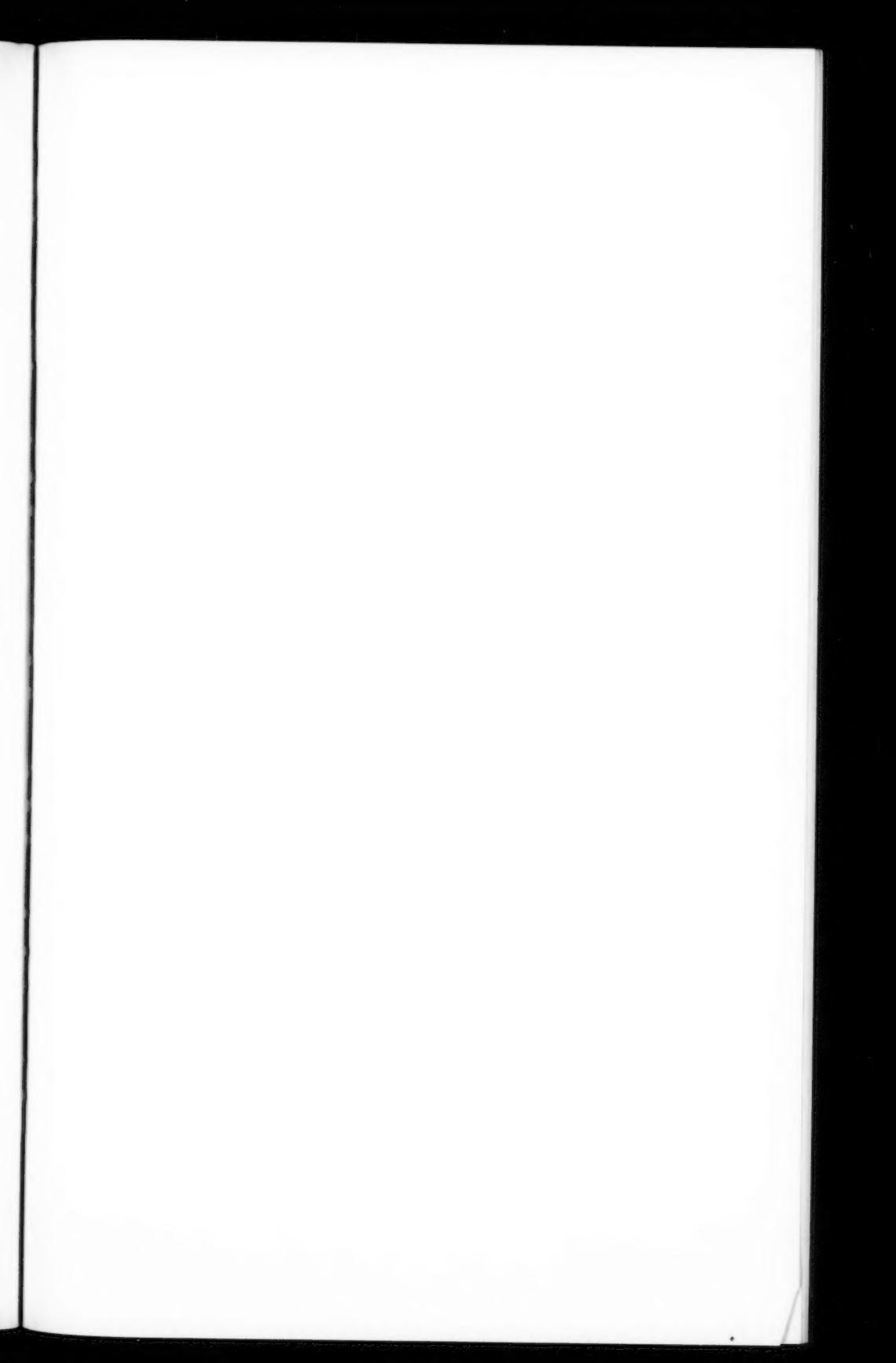
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FRED B. MILLETT
Wesleyan University
President of the Association, 1952 and 1953

THE ASSOCIATION'S NEW OFFICERS

A Letter to the Membership

Dear Colleagues:

This letter is to introduce the recently elected officers of the American Association of University Professors: Fred B. Millett, Professor of English, Director of the Honors College, Wesleyan University, *President*; DR Scott, Professor of Accounting and Statistics, University of Missouri, *First Vice-President*; and George W. Martin, Professor of Botany and Curator of the Cryptogamic Herbarium, State University of Iowa, *Second Vice-President*; and to introduce a new member of the Association's professional staff, Warren C. Middleton, Professor of Psychology, DePauw University.

It is of first importance to the Association and to the profession which it seeks to serve that those who hold office in the Association be men and women of stature in the profession who are committed to the development of the professional concept of college and university teaching and research, and to the furtherance of the ideals, standards, and principles of the profession; who are interested in the broad policies and the problems of higher education; who possess insight into and understanding of the nature and the functions of institutions of higher education; and who have the ability and the courage to speak and to act in the light of this understanding. This is particularly true of the Association's presidency, and the Association has been fortunate beyond reasonable expectation in the degree to which these qualifications have been possessed by those in this office. In its presidency the Association has been served by a succession of able members of the profession. Listed in the order of their presidencies, with their institutional connection as of the time of their election to this office, their names are as follows: John Dewey (Philosophy), Columbia University; John H. Wigmore (Law), Northwestern University; Frank Thilly (Philosophy), Cornell University; J. M.

Coulter (Botany), University of Chicago; Arthur O. Lovejoy (Philosophy), The Johns Hopkins University; Edward Capps (Classics), Princeton University; Vernon L. Kellogg (Zoology), Stanford University; E. R. A. Seligman (Political Science), Columbia University; J. V. Denney (English), Ohio State University; A. O. Leuschner (Astronomy), University of California; W. T. Semple (Classics), University of Cincinnati; Henry Crew (Physics), Northwestern University; William B. Munro (Government), Harvard University; Walter Wheeler Cook, (Law), The Johns Hopkins University; Samuel A. Mitchell (Astronomy), University of Virginia; Anton J. Carlson (Physiology), University of Chicago; Mark H. Ingraham (Mathematics), University of Wisconsin; Frederick S. Deibler (Economics), Northwestern University; W. T. Laprade (History), Duke University; Quincy Wright (International Law), University of Chicago; Edward C. Kirkland (History), Bowdoin College; Ralph H. Lutz (History), Stanford University; and Richard H. Shryock, (History), The Johns Hopkins University.

Professor Millett's election to the Association's presidency continues the succession of able members of the profession in this significant office. For this office he is well qualified as regards scholarship and experience in teaching and research, and in service to the Association. He holds the degrees of B.A., Amherst College, and Ph.D., The University of Chicago. For thirty-seven years he has contributed to the education of youth at the higher levels as a teacher in all of the academic ranks at four different institutions—Queens University (Kingston, Ontario), Carnegie Institute of Technology, The University of Chicago, and Wesleyan University. As Professor of English at Wesleyan University since 1939, he has also served this university as Acting Director, and since 1946 Director, of the University's Honors College. He has also served higher education as a consultant and as an author. He was in 1942 a consultant for the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation, and in 1945 a consultant to the Information and Education Division of the United States Army. During the years 1948-50 he was adviser to the periodical *College English*, and in 1951 a member of the Board of Directors of the National Council of Teachers of English. For twelve years he contributed

a monthly column to the *University of Chicago Magazine* and he has written numerous articles and book reviews for scholarly journals. He is also the author of many books.

In all of Dr. Millett's work, there is evident his deep interest in and devotion to liberal education. His philosophy of liberal education has been well set forth in his book, *The Rebirth of Liberal Education*, published in 1945. This book is a development of a report which he prepared for the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation on what is being done to revivify the humanities. In this book and in his article "Humanistic Education," which was published in the *Bulletin* of this Association in the Autumn, 1948 issue, he makes clear that while his interest is in *education* in contradistinction to *training*, he does not believe that the future of humanistic education depends on particular subject matter:

I have been struggling in the academic world too many years to have any illusions about the efficacy of any particular course in humanizing a student. No course is any better or any worse than the man who is teaching it, and no course, if taught by men of poor and meager spirit, is going to give the student the experience of intellectual liberation. The rebirth of liberal education depends then ultimately not on the devising of new curricula or new methods, although both of these are important, but on the production of more teachers in every discipline who are genuinely humanistic in themselves and in their attitude. This is the problem that every college president who is genuinely concerned with liberal education faces when he goes out to search for a chemist, a sociologist, or a teacher of elementary French. This is the problem with which the deans of graduate schools ought to concern themselves if they have any sense of responsibility to the colleges in which they hope to place their graduate students and to the society of which those colleges are an integral part.

Thus Professor Millett emphasizes the paramount importance of the teacher; and the teacher—his competence, his character, his personality, his professional environment—is central in the concern of the American Association of University Professors.

Professor Millett has been an Active Member of the Association since 1923. He has served the Association as a Chapter President, a member of its Council, and a member of its Nominating Committee. Of even greater importance, however, than his official service to the Association is the service he has given as an

Active Member in upholding the Association's principles, particularly its principles of intellectual freedom. Throughout his affiliation with the association he has demonstrated that he understands the philosophy of the Association and its principles, that he is committed to these principles, and that he has the ability and the courage to uphold them effectively. During the emotional years of the present, when freedom is under continuous attack, it is reassuring that we have in the presidency of the Association one who understands freedom and who can be relied upon to state the case for freedom effectively.

Brief biographical sketches concerning DR Scott and George W. Martin, the recently elected Vice-Presidents of the Association, presenting pertinent professional data, were published in the Autumn, 1951, issue of the Association's *Bulletin* in connection with their nomination for these offices. Professors Scott and Martin are men of stature in the profession and in the Association. Both are members of the Association of long standing, and experienced in its work. Both have served the Association as Chapter Officers and as members of its Council. Professor Scott has for many years been associated with the work of the Association relating to the principles of academic freedom and tenure as an associate member of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure. Like Professor Millett, Professors Scott and Martin are conversant with the Association's philosophy and are committed to its principles. The fact that these able members of the profession are again in official positions in the Association bodes well for the future of the Association.

For many years, the Association's Central Office has been seriously understaffed at the professional level, a situation resulting in part from the increasing growth of the Association, but in larger part from the increasing demands made upon the Association for service to the profession. Until recently the Association's financial resources did not make it possible to increase its professional staff. During the past year the Council of the Association authorized the appointment of a third member to this staff with the rank of Staff Associate. An offer of this position was accepted by Warren C. Middleton, Professor of Psychology of DePauw University, effective as of February 1 of this year. Professor

Middleton is a graduate of Central College (Missouri) with the A.B. degree, of Vanderbilt University with the A.M. degree, and of Yale University with the Ph.D. degree. He is an experienced member of the profession in both teaching and research. At DePauw University he served as Assistant Professor of Psychology, 1928-34, Associate Professor, 1934-40, and Professor, 1940-52. He is the author of numerous research articles in psychological and educational journals. He is experienced also in the work of the Association, and has served the Association as a Chapter President and as a member of the Association's Council. His term of office on the Council extends through the current year. The Association is fortunate in enlisting Professor Middleton's services in its professional work. It is a pleasure to introduce Professor Middleton to the membership.

Yours sincerely,
RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

THE TEACHING OF INTELLECTUAL FREEDOM¹

By ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN

University of Wisconsin

Before beginning my address I wish to express my pleasure at being admitted, after long and rather wistful waiting, into a sharing of your councils and your fellowship. It heals a hurt which I have suffered for some thirty-eight years. That hurt came from the fact that, so far as I know, I was the first person whose request for membership in your Association was denied. As I now enjoy the happiness of being among you at last, I should like to tell you the story of that experience.

Two or three years before this Association was formed I had become, by some strange freak of circumstance, a college president. And, as I sought to reduce the sense of loss and of guilt which quickly besets those who are lured into that calling, I had regularly attended the annual Christmas holiday meetings of the American Philosophical Association. But, on the occasion of which I am speaking, the first day of the meetings was, for me, sadly spoiled by the absence of some of the friends on whom I most depended to bolster up my assurance of academic respectability. J. E. Creighton, my Cornell teacher, whom, a little earlier, I had seen active in the founding of the Philosophical Association, was not there. Nor, as I remember it, was Ralph Perry, or Morris Cohen, or John Dewey, or Harry Overstreet, or Frank Thilly. On the second day, however, they turned up, and, at once, I demanded to know what they had been doing. The answer given was that they had been helping to form a professional Association, a "professor's union," for the defense of academic freedom and, with it, of tenure. To this news, in my innocence, I responded with

¹ Address given on March 28, 1952, at the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, March 28 and 29, 1952.

joyous approval of the project and even ventured to remark that nothing would please me more than to join in the work of such an association. But I can still feel the chill of realization of loss of status which came over me when I was told that, since I was a president, my application would be denied.

It must also be recorded that I did not at once, or tamely, submit to this act of academic ostracism. On the contrary, I argued hotly that such action, if so generalized that its maxim became law universal, would be clearly unwise and destructive of the purposes of the new Association. "You are planning," I said, "to enter into conflict with the trustees in defense of freedom. But between them and you is a 'third force,'—the president. On which side do you expect him to fight? His deeper impulses, I am sure, are with you, but most of the external influences which play upon him are with them. If you now consign him to the outer darkness, you will lose him forever, and the balance will turn against you. Why not try to save his soul and, at the same time, to win your own fight?"

We argued fiercely, but I was beaten from the start. "No," they said, "what we chiefly need is the solidarity of the faculty group. We dare not risk so deep a division of interest and of affiliation within our ranks." I will not here tell you what they said about the project of "saving the souls of the presidents." But I still have an uneasy feeling that perhaps I was right and they wrong. I do not think that the president of a college or university should be, primarily, the executive of the trustees, though, incidentally, he should be that. He should be, I think, the leader of the faculty, using that leadership to give unity and significance to everything which the institution is and does. In a word, the professors should not thrust him out. They should take him in.

And now, having expressed my happiness at being here, and having told my story, I invite you to consider my theme, "The Teaching of Intellectual Freedom."

The purpose of this paper is to state a problem. I have no expectation of reaching a solution of it. I shall be well content if, at the end of the paper, you will recognize my difficulty as falling within the field of your activities and will feel the need of doing something about it.

The problem is suggested by the recent happenings at the University of California. As a retired professor, living in Berkeley beside the University, I have watched with deep concern the disastrous conflict which has raged in that institution during the last two or three years. It is out of a sympathetic sharing in the agonies of that conflict that I am seeking its sources and am presenting for your consideration one of the most perplexing aspects of the work done in our universities and colleges.

Though my own judgment of the rights and wrongs of the California dispute is that of a partisan who condemns the action of the Regents and applauds, especially, the resistance of the nonsigners who refuse to obey the Regent edict, the question which I have in mind does not concern that specific issue. I am thinking rather of a deeper problem which underlies the California quarrel and all other like quarrels in our institutions of higher learning. It is the question of our responsibility for the teaching of intellectual freedom to the people of the United States. Have we such a responsibility? If so, what is it? Do we meet it, or fail to meet it? I am asking, you see, about the functional relation between the scholars and teachers of the nation and that combination of economic, political, social, moral, aesthetic, and intellectual activities which, taken together, we popularly call the American Way of Life.

II

Thirty-seven years ago, your Association was formed in the interest of professional development. A necessary condition of professional development, as the founders of the Association clearly perceived, was the establishment of some degree of academic self-government. In those far-off days, which most of you are too young to remember, a group of keen and generous minds, with many of whom I had personal friendship, had perceived a danger which increasingly threatened the integrity and effectiveness of the work done in our colleges and universities. They saw that, by a process of events, for which no one could be held responsible, the control and administration of research and teaching were passing over into the hands of nonacademic men. I shall not try to specify the forces which were driving in that direction. For my present pur-

pose, it is enough to note that the founders of your Association saw the drift, and judged it to be dangerous. And their response to that danger was the suggestion that the Faculties of colleges and universities should be given, and should exercise, certain kinds of authority for determining the aims of research and teaching, and for making sure that, in actual procedures, those aims were realized.

The argument of this paper will not discuss the career of your Association in the pursuit of that immediate intention. As an outsider, I cannot claim competence for that task nor would it be seemly that, on this occasion, I attempt it. There are, however, two brief remarks about it which, on the way to my theme, I wish to make in passing. First, the judgment from which the Association sprang was, I am sure, valid. There was, and is, a drift, a danger, which makes it imperative that effective control of academic work shall be in the hands of the women and men who are doing that work. And, second, as judged by its own intention, you seem to me to have won unexpected success. You have not beaten down the forces which, more or less blindly, threaten freedom. At no point in our common life has that been done. But, in the midst of conflict, you have held your ground without retreat. You have proclaimed what research and teaching are and why, in their fundamental aspects, they must govern themselves. I am not saying that your words have been fully understood. I do say that you have spoken the truth.

But, as already suggested, the inquiry which I now venture to present to you is not primarily concerned with the freedom and self-government of the professors of the United States. It is concerned, rather, with the freedom and self-government of the people of the United States. You and I know that neither research nor teaching can be properly done unless it is free. But it is equally true that, in the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, the self-governing people of the nation are assigned an intellectual task which, again, cannot be properly done unless the doing of it is free. That demand for the inviolability of the freedom of mind of the members of our body-politic is recognized and formulated in the First Amendment to the Constitution, when it says:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

Now the issue which I seek to present to you will come to light if we note the identity of intention between the recommendations made by your Association during the past thirty-seven years and the provisions of the First Amendment, which was enacted one hundred and sixty-one years ago. In both cases it is demanded that the authority of a legally superior governing agency shall be kept within a defined limit. The agency which governs the colleges and universities is the Regents or Trustees, with their executive officers, including the President. In the case of the nation, the corresponding governing agency is the Congress and, by implication, its executive and judicial associates. In both cases, the governing bodies are given legal authority to provide for the security and welfare of the institutions committed to their care. But, also, in both cases alike, they are forbidden to use, in the doing of their work, any abridgment of intellectual freedom. There are many practical devices which they may use. But that device, however immediately useful it might be, they may never use.

Here, then, is the question which I ask you to consider. What is the relation between the freedom of mind of the professor, as defined by your Association, and the freedom of mind of the people, as defined by the First Amendment? And the answer which I suggest is that academic freedom is a special form, a subform, of popular freedom. We, who engage in research and teaching, do so as agents of the people of the nation. In virtue of special abilities and training we are commissioned to carry on for the people forms of intellectual activity which belong to them, are done in their interest, but which, in some specific forms, they cannot carry on for themselves. Just as some men make shoes and other men grow food, so it is our business to discover truth in its more intellectualized forms and to make it powerful in the guidance of the life of the community. And since we are thus acting as the

agents of the people, they grant to us such of their freedom as is needed in that field of work. In a word, the final justification of our academic freedom is to be found, not in our purposes but in theirs. In the last resort, it is granted, not because we want it or enjoy it, but because those by whom we are commissioned need intellectual leadership in the thinking which a free society must do. May I state the principle bluntly and frankly? Our final responsibility, as scholars and teachers, is not to the truth. It is to the people who need the truth.

III

As we search for the implications of the assertion just made, I ask you, for a while, to examine with me the Constitution of the United States, so far as it provides for the intellectual freedom of the people. In my opinion, that provision exemplifies the creative genius of our nation more clearly and adequately than any other of our achievements. As our history now stands, it is the greatest thing we have done. Where, then, in the structure of our government, does the Constitution place the freedom of mind of the members of our body-politic?

The general purpose of the Constitution is, as we all know, to define and allocate legal powers for the governing of the nation. To this end, a number of special agencies are set up—thus far the legislative, executive, and judicial—and to each of these are delegated such specific powers as are needed for doing its part of the work.

Now that program rests upon a sharp separation between the political body which delegates powers and the political bodies to which powers are delegated. It presupposes, on the one hand, a supreme governing agency to which, originally, all authority belongs. It specifies, on the other hand, certain subordinate agencies to which delegations of authority are made. What, then, is the working relation between the supreme agency and its subordinates? That is our primary problem.

First of all, what is the supreme governing agency of this nation? In the first words which it utters the Constitution answers that question. "We, the People of the United States," it declares,

"do ordain and establish this Constitution. . . ." Those are the basic words which define our intellectual freedom. They mark off our government from every form of despotism. The legal powers of the People of the United States are not granted to them by some one else—by kings or barons or priests or statesmen or financiers. All political authority, whether it is delegated or not, originates, constitutionally, in us. If any one else has authority, we are lending it to him. We, the People, are governed, directly or indirectly, only by ourselves.

But who are We, the People? At this point, the Constitution is, of necessity, difficult and paradoxical. Since we, the people, are governed by we, the people, the words, "the people," must be, and are, used in two distinct senses. In certain passages they refer to all persons who are governed, to all residents of the country. In other passages, the same words refer only to persons who govern. And a careful reading of the Constitution makes it clear that these two groups, while they overlap, are not identical. Many residents of the United States are denied political authority. Resident aliens, for example, have no share in political action. They are governed, but do not govern. Nor do many citizens. Citizen children are without political authority. So, too, are some of the criminal and insane. For a long time, citizen women were debarred from political action. And, by means of poll taxes, property qualifications, etc., other citizens, here and there, now and then, have been cut off from the governing body-politic. In a word, one hundred and fifty million residents of the United States are governed. But only some ninety million of these have authority to govern. All of us are subject to the laws. But not all of us are makers of the laws. And this distinction between two constitutional meanings of "the people" must never be ignored when we declare that this nation is self-governed. We must keep it in mind when we say that "governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed." It may not be forgotten even when we repeat the flaming words of Abraham Lincoln about government of, by, and for the people. Under the Constitution, the people "of whom" and "for whom" government exists are not the people "by whom" it exists.

IV

This distinction between the people who govern and the people who are governed is constantly, and often disastrously, obscured as we Americans interpret those first ten amendments to the Constitution which we loosely call the Bill of Rights. Those ten enactments serve two radically different purposes. When dealing with the people as governed, they give them protection of their rights "under the laws." When dealing with the people as governors, they give them protection of their powers "over the laws." Under Amendments 3 to 9 everyone who is controlled by the government has rights. Whether he be alien or citizen, child or adult, woman or man, black, yellow, white, or red, patriot or traitor, rich or poor, weak or powerful, amendments three to nine assure him that, in the passing and enforcing of the laws upon him, his individual rights will be, in defined ways, recognized and protected. But amendments one and ten, together with the now obsolete amendment two, have a radically different function. They give assurance, not to the governed, but to the governors, that in their activities of governing, they will be free from interference by any other governing agency. We have, then, not merely a Bill of Rights, but a Bill of Rights and Powers. And it is with respect to the freedom of our Powers, to our freedom as governors, that the First Amendment is speaking when it declares that Congress shall not abridge the freedom of religion, of speech, of press, of peaceable assembly, of petition for redress of grievances.

What have We, the People, in our establishing of a Constitution, done with the Powers which thus inhere in us? Some of them we have delegated. But there is one power, at least, which we have not delegated, which we have kept for our own direct exercise. Article I, Section 2, authorizes the people, in their capacity as "electors," to choose their Representatives. And that means that We, the People, in a basic sense, do actively govern those who, by delegated powers, govern us. In the midst of all our delegations of power to legislative, executive, and judicial bodies, we have jealously kept for ourselves the most fundamental of all powers. It is the power of voting, of choosing, by joint action,

those representatives to whom our delegated powers are entrusted. We, the governing People, are, then, politically, an electorate. We govern at the polls. That is what is meant when it is said that we of the United States are, politically, a free people. Our First Amendment freedom is that of women and men who vote freely, and, by voting, govern the nation. That is our ideal intention, however slackly and negligently we have put it into effect.

V

Our argument, as thus far stated, has brought us to the conclusion that, in our American plan of government, men are free in so far as their electing is free. We can get the full meaning of that statement only as we examine more closely what men do when they elect, and how they do it.

The most obvious feature of activity at the polls is the choosing among candidates. But, under our procedures of election, with their public meetings and party platforms, with the turmoil and passion of partisan debate, the voters are also deciding public policies. As we vote we do more than elect men to office. We also judge the wisdom or folly of measures. Now it is these "judging" activities of the governing people which the First Amendment protects by its guarantees of freedom from interference. Because we have work to do for the general welfare, We, the People, make two demands. First, our judging of public issues, whether done separately or in groups, must be free and independent—must be our own. It must be done by us and by no one else. And, second, we must be equally free and independent in expressing, at the polls, the conclusions, the decisions, to which our judging has brought us. Censorship over our thinking, duress over our voting, are alike forbidden by the First Amendment. Any subordinate agency which, in any way, practices such censorship or duress, stands in "contempt" of the sovereign people of the United States.

But further, we must ask more specifically, What do men do when they think and vote? What are the actual intellectual processes by which free men govern a nation, which, therefore, must be protected from any external interference? They seem to be of three kinds.

First, when men try to "make up their minds" concerning the general welfare, they commonly turn, for suggestion and information, to the printed records of the thinking and believing which other men have done or are doing. Those records take the form of documents, of books, ancient and modern, of magazines, of newspapers, of works of art of many kinds. They bring to us the wisdom, the discoveries, and the follies of men. They tell us of the sayings of ancient prophets. They give us the daily news and comments on it. And all this vast array of idea and fact, of belief and doubt, of appreciation and purpose, of information and argument, the elector may use to help him in making up his mind.

Second, we electors do our thinking, not only by lonely reading and reflection, but also in the active associations of public discussion. We think together, as well as apart. And in this field, by group action of congenial minds, by the controversies of opposing minds, we form political parties, adopt platforms, conduct campaigns, hold meetings, in order that this or that set of ideas may prevail, in order that that measure or this may be defeated.

And, finally, when election day comes, the elector, having presumably made up his mind, must now record his vote. Behind the canvas curtain, in secret, alone and independent, he renders his decision. He acts as sovereign, one of the governors of his country. Whatever may be our practice, that, in theory, is our political freedom.

Now, here again, it is the purpose of the First Amendment, as it guards our freedom, to see to it that in none of these three activities of judging shall the elector be robbed, by action of other branches, the subordinate branches, of the government, of the responsibility, the power, the authority, which are his under the Constitution. What shall he read? What he himself decides to read. With whom shall he associate in political advocacy? With those with whom he decides to associate. Whom shall he oppose? Those with whom he disagrees. Shall any branch of the government attempt to control his vote, to drive him by duress or intimidation into believing or voting this way or that? To do so is to violate the Constitution at its very source. We, the People, are self-governing. That is why our minds must be free.

VI

I have thus far stated the Constitutional doctrine of intellectual freedom in the form of a single principle. That principle, I am keenly aware, is very abstract and theoretical, very remote from concrete experiences. It defines our freedom by giving only the intellectual skeleton of it. It gives nothing of the flesh and blood, nothing of the welter of social passions, of individual interests, by which that skeleton is clothed and nurtured. And yet the seeing of that skeleton in sharp and abstract outline is the first requisite of an understanding of the life of our body-politic. The Constitution itself is an assembly of abstractions. In view of its purpose, it could be nothing else. As we try to interpret that document it is, first of all, not a situation, but a theory which confronts us. But now, having stated a theory, let me try to derive from it a few more specific expressions of its meaning at this point or that.

1. When we interpret the First Amendment as guarding the freedom to hear and to read, it must be noted that the principle applies, not only to the utterances of electors, but also to the writing or speaking of everyone whom an elector, at his own discretion, may choose to hear or to read. And this means that unhindered expression must be open to nonelectors, to resident aliens, to men of other nations, to anyone, past or present, who has something to say which may have significance for a man who is thinking about the welfare of this nation. The Bible, the Koran, Plato, Adam Smith, Joseph Stalin, Gandhi, may be published and read in the United States, not because they have a "right" to be published, but because of an elector's authority, his legal "power," to decide what he chooses to read, to think about. With the exercise of that "reserved power" all "delegated" powers are, by the Constitution, forbidden to interfere.

2. In the field of public discussion, when electors and their fellow-thinkers "peaceably assemble" to listen to a speaker, whether he be American or foreign, conservative or radical, safe or dangerous, the principle of "the freedom of assembly" is not, in the first instance, concerned with the "right" of the "speaker" to say this or that. It is concerned with the authority of the hearers

to meet together, to discuss and to hear discussed, by a speaker of their own choice, whatever they may deem worthy of their consideration. With that governing power of assembly, "peaceably" exercised, no other governing power has authority to interfere.

3. The same freedom from pressure, from attempts at duress, is guaranteed to every elector as he makes up his mind, chooses his political affiliation, and, finally, casts his vote. During that process, no governing body may use force upon him, may try to drive him toward this decision or that or away from this decision or that. And, for this reason, no subordinate agency of the government has authority to ask, with compulsion, what an elector's political commitments are. The question, "Are you a Republican?" or "Are you a Communist?" when asked with compulsion to answer, when accompanied by the threat of harmful or degrading consequences, if the answer is this rather than that, is an intolerable invasion of the "non-delegated powers" of the governing people. And the freedom here protected does not express the "right" of one who is governed, to avoid self-incrimination. It expresses the "authority," the legal "power," of one who governs to make up his own mind without fear or favor, with the independence and freedom in which self-government consists.

4. For the same reasons, electoral freedom forbids that any elector be required, under threat of penalty, to take an oath, or make an affirmation, as to "beliefs" which he holds or rejects. Every elector, it is true, may be required, and should be required, to pledge and to practice loyalty to the nation. He must agree to support the Constitution. But he may never be required to *believe* in the Constitution. His loyalty of attitude and of behavior may never be tested on grounds of adherence to, or rejection of, any belief. It does not imply conformity of opinion. In the field of his judging, every elector has Constitutional authority to approve or to condemn any laws enacted by the legislature, any measures taken by the executive, any decisions rendered by the judiciary, any principles established by the Constitution. All these enactments which, as governed, we must obey, are subject to our approval or disapproval, as we govern. With respect to all of them, "We, the Electors," are sovereign. We are "The People." We govern the United States.

VII

And now, finally, the argument returns to your Association and to the responsibility of our colleges and universities for the teaching of intellectual freedom to the people of the United States. If what I have said about our plan of government is true, there can be no doubt that the citizens of this nation need that teaching. Without it, the program of self-government is doomed to futility and disaster. But, in the face of that necessity, it seems equally true that our scholars and teachers are not providing the teaching which is needed. They are doing something else, and doing it well. But they are not giving the intellectual leadership in freedom upon which the success of the great experiment in self-government depends.

It is at this point that the conflict at the University of California seems to me peculiarly illuminating, because of the striking evidence which it gives in support of the accusation just made. Many tragic facts of suffering and of injustice have marked the course of that conflict. But more tragic than any or all of them is the prior fact that, in this experience, the university has been reaping the bitter fruits of its own planting. When the scholars and teachers of the university have now spoken of the freedom needed in the work they have to do, their words have seemed meaningless, and even absurd, to the people for whom that work is done. Californians, on the whole, have felt the force, the threat, of the protest by the professors. But they have not understood its reasoning, its logic. They have been shocked by the resignations of faculty men of high repute, by the refusal of invitations to men in other universities, and by the condemnations of learned societies. But they have seemed wholly unable to comprehend why such actions are taken. The academic protest against the requirement of a belief-oath is, for them, a vagary of the professorial mind, rather than an expression of loyalty to a kind of freedom upon which the integrity of free learning in a free society depends. May I try to depict that basic failure of the teaching of the university—and, then, my paper will be done.

As you well know, when the California Regents added to the customary loyalty-oath a belief-oath of political conformity, the

University Senate, with virtual unanimity, entered formal and vigorous protest against that action. The great majority of the Faculty, it is true, in the months of controversy which followed, submitted to the Regent decision. That was done, for the most part, I believe, on the mistaken ground that a continuation of the struggle would be harmful to the university. It did not indicate a change of mind as to the unwise and injustice of the Regent procedure. And, further, a small minority, some thirty-nine non-signers, at the risk of every item of status and of livelihood which they and their families possessed, refused to submit. They stood fast in their disobedience and, on that ground, were dismissed from their posts.

What were these Faculty men saying about academic freedom, the signers with compromise, the non-signers without compromise? They were, I think, expressing the conviction that an institution which limits intellectual freedom is not a university. They knew that a man who assumes the social responsibilities of a scholar, a teacher, a preacher, must, first of all, establish, in the minds of the people whom he serves, the assurance, the certainty, that his beliefs, his utterances, are, independently, his own. They must be sure that he is a man whom no one, not even themselves, can compel to believe this or to say that, can forbid to believe that or to say this. Anyone who submits, under pressure, to coercive control over his thought or his speech, in so far ceases to be a scholar searching for the truth, ceases to be a teacher, leading his pupils toward honest and fearless inquiry and belief. He becomes a hired man, thinking what he is paid to think, saying what he is hired to say.

But that duty of intellectual freedom, recognized and expressed by the members of the Faculty, has been, on the whole, incomprehensible to those to whom, presumably, that Faculty is giving intellectual leadership. The Regents have not understood it and, hence, have been driven to fury by its defiance of their authority. The administrators have been bewildered and shocked by the resistance of friends and colleagues with whom they had thought themselves to be on terms of good will and common purpose. And the same inability to interpret what the professors were saying has afflicted the general body of the alumni, whom, sup-

posedly, the university had educated, the greater part of the student body whom, presumably, it is educating, and, most clearly of all, the people of the state, for whom, and by whose support and authority, the work of the university is done. Only one group responded to the appeal with comprehension of it and with passionate acceptance of it. That badly-betrayed group was the teaching assistants and graduate students who had been looking forward to careers of research and teaching, of honesty and freedom. To them there has come the incalculable damage of bitter discouragement and disillusionment.

VIII

Here, then, is the tragic failure which you and I must face. Our universities and colleges, whatever else they have accomplished have failed to meet their deepest obligation. In a society striving to be free, they have not taught what freedom is, nor how it can be won, nor how it can be lost. They have not made clear to our communities why their teachers must be free, nor why they themselves must be free. And that failure, may I say again, is not peculiar to California. In varying degrees, it runs through the work of our colleges and universities from one end of the country to the other. We scholars and teachers who have, rightly, demanded intellectual freedom for ourselves have not explained, either to our pupils or to the community at large, the justification of that demand. We have seemed to be talking about a special privilege of our craft rather than about our obligation to that fundamental freedom which must be possessed and exercised, not only by us, but by every member of a society which is seeking to be self-governed.

The tragic results of that failure of our teaching can be seen if we compare the quality of our present popular thinking about issues of common concern with the high intellectual achievement of the men who devised the Constitution, who discussed the Federalist Papers, and who wrote the First Amendment. In that achievement, our forefathers, by the sheer energy of their intelligence, created an Idea which, in that form, the world had not known before. But we today have no such bold and independent thinking.

We have become timid and defensive. Unlike our forefathers, we Americans now regard the basic problems of government as having been solved for us by our ancestors. And our chief concern is to protect that ancestral heritage from attacks, domestic and foreign. What we now demand of men's minds, therefore, is not the independence which creates insight but the conformity which destroys it. As the owners of a great tradition, we seek, not to produce but to enjoy, not to cultivate but to defend, not to explore but to exploit. By force, by compulsion, we now drive each other into giving to freedom the slavish, timid loyalty, which does not dare to ask what, with the passing of time, a changing freedom has become.

Who, in our society, is primarily responsible for that process of disintegration? In so far as blame can be assigned, it must be laid, first of all, at the door of our colleges and universities. Theirs are the opportunities and the obligations of intellectual leadership. It is they who are the physicians of the mind. As they have failed us, we Americans are in desperate need of the teaching of intellectual freedom. What, I come here to ask this Association, can be done about it?

And now may I quote one last word from Immanuel Kant, who seems to me to have had, more than any other Western thinker, an understanding of the function of the free mind in the life of a society. Looking back upon his own career, Kant said:

I am an investigator by inclination. I feel a great thirst for knowledge and an impatient eagerness to advance, also satisfaction at each progressive step forward. There was a time when I thought that all this could constitute the honor of humanity, and I despised the common people who know nothing about it. Rousseau set me straight. This dazzling excellence vanishes. I learn to honor men, and would consider myself much less useful than common laborers if I did not believe that this purpose gives all the others their value—to establish the rights of humanity.

TEACHERS VS. LEARNERS

By VIVIAN H. S. MERCIER

The City College

There are, according to the *American College Dictionary*, some 130 colleges in the United States today whose full title contains the word "Teachers." There is not, as yet, one single college named for learners. Any Texas oilman who wishes to emulate the Carnegies and Rockefellers would do American education a unique service by endowing one.

For what is wrong with American higher education today, to my mind, is not too few teachers, but too few learners. This statement is not intended as an attack upon the American student, for whom I have considerable respect; it merely indicates that I draw a sharp distinction between *students* and *learners*. The American undergraduate—and often the graduate too—is too busy being a student to learn anything for himself. He just hasn't got the time.

His situation would be a little less desperate if he did not, unfortunately, have the best teachers in the world. For the American teacher is terrific. I should know, because I have spent the last three years or so trying to catch up with him. Aware how bad—even by Irish preparatory school standards—the teaching was at my *alma mater*, Trinity College, Dublin, I had vowed to do better when my turn came to teach. That "better" turned out to be almost ludicrously bad when I reached America, so I audited the classes and picked the brains of most of my colleagues at Bennington. Then I came to New York and started doing the same thing at City College and Columbia. If I am still not a good teacher, it certainly is not my colleagues' fault.

But, paradoxically, the excellence of American teaching is almost fatal to the learning process. If the American student got nothing from his teachers, as generally happens in European universities,

he might be forced, in sheer desperation, to go find out for himself. (In fact, that may be the whole purpose of the wearisome lecture system in Europe.) As it is, the material is presented in class so stimulatingly and with such admirable clarity, that the student becomes the victim of an illusion. While he was reading his assignment at home or in the dormitory, he *knew* that Plato was difficult and in fact downright incomprehensible. Now, in the classroom, the thought that philosophers have spent more than two millennia trying to comprehend seems clear as daylight. He takes notes, asks intelligent questions, argues with his instructor over a point that he was unaware existed two minutes before, and gets A on the quiz without ever looking again at the passage in Plato, which he thinks he now understands. Actually, if he went back to it, he would find it just as difficult as before. While perhaps no longer defying comprehension, it would probably be open to several other interpretations besides his teacher's.

Unfortunately, he never does have time to go back to Plato, because "next day we take up Aristotle" and he faces a reading assignment of 50 or 60 pages culled to give the essence of the Stagirite. Moreover, he owes his Composition instructor a 500-word theme, his History instructor a book-report, his Sociology teacher a questionnaire, his coach two hours' road-work, and his girl friend a date.

At this point one begins to realize that the American university is in some ways the least democratic, the most authoritarian, of all our institutions. The student is usually allowed tremendous liberty in choosing his courses, but no liberty at all as regards how he shall follow the courses chosen. He must attend class meetings religiously, prove in quizzes that he is familiar with the particular textbook prescribed, and carry out all the assignments that his instructor may choose to give. Multiply these exactions by the number of courses he takes; add the number of hours spent in almost obligatory extra-curricular activities; superadd the part-time jobs that alone make a college education possible for so many students; one soon realizes that the American student lacks the time, even if he possessed the inclination, for independent study.

A comparison might not be out of place here. At Trinity College, Dublin, anyone hardy enough to take three term examina-

tions a year was permitted unlimited cuts from the lecture-room. The year consisted of three seven-week terms in the Liberal Arts College, and the number of lectures available for those taking the Honors program ranged from four per week in Philosophy to a maximum of 12 per week in Modern Languages and Literature. An Honors graduate in Philosophy, if he had attended all the lectures required of him, would thus have spent $4 \times 3 \times 7 \times 4 = 336$ hours in the classroom during his four undergraduate years. The Modern Languages man would have spent 1008 hours there—still less than half the $128 \times 16 = 2048$ classroom hours that are standard for the U. S. graduate.

Of course, the overworked American undergraduate is partly paying for the time he wasted in high school. His Irish counterpart has spent at least four years in a preparatory school working nine hours a day, five days a week, for 36 or 38 weeks in the year. He has thus paid for his undergraduate liberty and it is very precious to him. He shies away from everything that reminds him of school, including athletics, discipline, conformity in dress and manners, and secret societies. If he has been drilled and spoonfed for years, at least they were years when most people are supposed to be incapable of self-discipline or independent thought. His mind is left free just at the time when the creative intellect needs its liberty most—when, at least in mathematicians, it is already nearing its peak.

The American student, on the other hand, is doubly handicapped during his crucial college years. He is given little or no time to do anything but passively absorb the information handed out to him by his instructors and textbooks, and in any case he lacks the necessary basis for a more critical attitude, because he has not mastered even the groundwork of his subject before entering college.

II

I think the hardest thing for American educators to learn is that it is sometimes good for people to be let alone. I often wonder what they make of this passage in Newman's *Idea of a University*:

I protest to you, Gentlemen, that if I had to choose between a so-called University, which dispensed with residence and tutorial superintendence, and gave its degrees to any person who passed an examination in a wide range of subjects, and a University which had no professors or examinations at all, but merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years, and then sent them away as the University of Oxford is said to have done sixty years since, if I were asked which of these two methods was the better discipline of the intellect . . . I have no hesitation in giving the preference to that University which did nothing, over that which exacted of its members an acquaintance with every science under the sun.

As one who received his higher education mainly in the do-nothing school, I heartily endorse Newman's position. I got the most important parts of my education in the dining hall, around the fire in the College Historical Society's club room, at bull-sessions in my own and other people's rooms, on long walks over the Dublin Mountains, in Joycean bar rooms, in the library reading room, on the reading room steps—anywhere but in the lecture rooms and the examination hall.

One of the rarest privileges of such an education was that one became acquainted with most of the great minds of the century outside the classroom. For instance, Freud, Frazer, Lawrence, Yeats, and Joyce were not, to the best of my knowledge, taken up in any Trinity course during the years 1936–40. The English Literature Honors course ended with Matthew Arnold. Anything later was current literature, which the educated man presumably read and judged for himself on the basis of his knowledge of the classics. Foreign contemporaries, it was felt, needed more introduction, and the French Honors course did compel one to study certain works by Proust, Gide, and Valéry. But generally speaking our instructors in the living thought of our century were Freud, Frazer, Lawrence, *et al.*, themselves, and not a depressing series of Dr. I. Q.'s, each of whom had himself first encountered these liberators of the human mind in a classroom.

Bearing all this in mind, I have no right to go on being surprised at how dependent the average American undergraduate is on his instructor. Of course, I find his attitude extremely flattering by comparison with the genial contempt of the British or Irish student

for anyone short of a world figure. But it is also decidedly unnerving. To some of the more clinging of my Columbia writing students I have had to say—"Look, it's your story; nobody else can write it for you." Yet on the whole "creative" writing courses are among the most liberating given in American colleges. The reason, to my mind, is that creative writing cannot be taught—and if it could be, a noncreative critic like myself would not be the one to teach it—but it can be *learned*. The learner goes ahead and writes, the teacher criticizes what has been written and points out the problems to be overcome, and then the learner finds or tries to find his own ways of overcoming them. The way that is right for him obviously need not be right for anyone else. I have often felt that in writing courses the teacher-learner distinction is meaningless; both parties learn together, and the more ignorant they are, the more they learn.

Stanley Edgar Hyman, author of *The Armed Vision*, claims on the basis of his Bennington experience that "Teaching is a function of ignorance," and I almost agree with him. I have given some of my worst classes on the topics and authors I know best, whereas when I was reading a book for the first time, assignment by assignment, exactly in step with the class, I found that my freshness and spontaneity made up for any lack of scholarship. The greater the book, the more effective this unpreparedness is, both teacher and class reproducing the experience of Keats with Chapman's Homer.

I imagine that this kind of shared learning is a main factor in the oft-noted phenomenon that young teachers are on the average better than older teachers, or at least more popular with their students. As a modification of "Hyman's Law" I would suggest, "Teaching is a function of learning," or, "Teaching is a function of the desire to learn." Certainly any so-called teacher who has lost the ability or the desire to learn cannot implant these qualities in his students.

American intellectuals have been accused in every generation of undue subservience to authority—whether it be that of English reviewers, German philosophers, or Russian politicians. The accusations have so often been made by those who hate all intellect, all superiority, that at best they are extremely suspect. But if there is any truth in them at all, some of the blame must fall on our

educational system. The great majority of the American intellectual élite are conformists; even the "rebels" adopt a pattern dictated by the authority they rebel against, and are disciples of some teacher or other into the bargain. The genuinely independent minds that we so badly need virtually do not exist in the universities, for the conditions necessary to produce them are not yet in being.

THE ACADEMIC PROFESSION IN THE UNITED STATES¹

By RICHARD H. SHRYOCK

The Johns Hopkins University

For a full century, after about 1830, American scholars were continuously impressed by the contrasts between higher education in Western Europe and in their own country. They were especially struck by the difference in the status of academic personnel in these two settings.² This difference impressed me strongly when I visited Germany as late as 1933. Upon undertaking this trip, I had first registered with the Hamburg-American Line simply as "Mr.", since there seemed no need to admit that I was only an absent-minded professor. Nothing came of this innocent deception until, near the end of the voyage, my university connections were accidentally revealed. The attitude of the steamship company immediately changed. The home office was hurriedly notified that a full professor was approaching the Fatherland, and a special agent was dispatched fifty miles to meet me at the landing port. This gentleman, upon our arrival, delicately expressed the honor which my appearance had bestowed upon his people; and then solemnly separated my family and me from the prosperous business men who made up the rest of our party. The latter were left to find their own second-class seats in the boat train, while we were ensconced in the one first-class compartment. The agent later spent an entire day in seeing that we were properly housed in Hamburg: all this with the compliments of the Line.

By the simple expedient of landing on German soil, and much to my surprise, I had thus become a "V.I.P." I had undergone a sea-change: had been transformed from a mere "prof."—that

¹ Address of the Retiring President of the American Association of University Professors, presented on March 28, 1952, at the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the Association in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, March 28 and 29, 1952.

² See, e.g., Marten ten Hoor, in *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, Vol. 26 (1940), 404 ff.

half-friendly, half-condescending title of the American vernacular—into the austere dignity of a “Herr Professor Doctor.” And all this, mind you, in the Year I of the Nazi dispensation, which we all know harbored anti-intellectual tendencies.

Since then I have never been quite the same. Of course, my democratic instincts were outraged by the deference thereafter accorded me. But the whole experience started a train of thought which has moved along in my mind ever since, reaching far beyond its starting point. For it soon appeared that more was involved in this contrast between American and German *Gelehrten* than the mere question of personal prestige. Was it not, for example, more than a coincidence that German professors—highly respected and given every encouragement—had led the world in scientific research for most of the nineteenth century; whereas their American colleagues—viewed somewhat casually at best—had done so little for basic science throughout that same period?¹

There were well-known reasons for the high standing of German academic men; for example, the severe standards of selection, their limited number, and notably their position as state functionaries or what we might term “officers of public trust.”² But behind these immediate circumstances lay a background of long-established public attitudes toward learning—and especially toward the advancement of learning through research—of which there was as yet no complete counterpart in the United States. Nothing short of an analysis of cultural traditions in general, and of educational institutions in particular, could explain the differences between these two national perspectives.

II

Any statement that the literature on higher education is large may be viewed as a truism, but I doubt if most of us realize how extensive are the American materials alone. This will be impressed on anyone who will glance back over the *Bulletin* of this Association which, although one of the most important sources, is but one among many, and for only the period since 1915. So

¹ R. H. Shryock, “American Indifference to Basic Science During the Nineteenth Century,” *Archives Internationales d’Histoire des Sciences*, No. 5 (Paris, 1948), 50 ff.

² Stephen d'Irsay, *Histoire des Universités*, II (Paris, 1935), 205.

much has been printed that many a writer has expressed a forlorn hope that the flow could somehow be stopped—adding, meantime, his own modest contribution. One could make a long list, indeed, of those who feel that the list of authors is already too long.

We are apparently in that late stage in which bibliographic essays would be in order, though I have been mildly encouraged by not finding any. Some bibliographies are becoming available, however, chiefly those assembled—as might be expected—by the conscientious authors of doctoral theses.¹ There is no space to analyze all this material but one negative observation may be permitted. In spite of all the publication, we do not yet seem to have an adequate critical history of higher education in the United States, or even such a history of the American academic profession. Perhaps we are only approaching the point where comprehensive, interpretive studies can be attempted.

Meanwhile, what does a fair sampling of this literature, and of something of the European literature, indicate about the nature of higher education in this country? Obviously, one can only summarize here the historical trends, note certain problems, and suggest conclusions. It would be naïve to claim great originality in so doing: doubtless everything which can be said about higher education has been said. But there is always the possibility that shifts in perspective or changes in emphasis may lead to modified conclusions.

III

When one compares higher education in the United States with that in other parts of the Western world today, the most striking

¹ I.e., in the following: E. J. McGrath, *Evolution of Administrative Offices in Institutions of Higher Education in the United States, 1860-1933* (thesis, Chicago, 1936); C. Bowman, *The College Professor in America* (unpub. thesis, University of Pennsylvania, 1938); Logan Wilson, *The Academic Man* (New York, 1942; originally a thesis, Harvard University); R. B. Sutton, *European and American Backgrounds of the American Concept of Academic Freedom* (unpub. thesis, University of Missouri, 1950); W. P. Metzger, *College Professors and Big Business Men: A Study of American Ideologies, 1880-1915* (unpub. thesis, University of Iowa, 1950); S. R. Rolnick, *The Development of the Idea of Academic Freedom in American Higher Education* (unpub. thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1951); Bruno Hartung, *A Study of the Economic Status of the Professor in American Colleges and Universities* (unpub. thesis, The Catholic University of America, 1951).

contrasts—apart from such subtleties as the status of professors—relate to sequence and government. By sequence, I mean the American arrangement by which students, after completing a "6-3-3" order in elementary and "high school" training, then attend a four-year "arts college" before they enter graduate or professional schools. In most other countries, as is well known, the students go directly from a somewhat extended secondary school into graduate and professional institutions—there being no such thing as the intermediate college. In other words, we provide more levels of formal education in this country, which may imply more danger of overlapping and confusion between them. How this came about merits some attention.

By differences in government is meant the familiar fact that authority in American colleges and universities is usually vested in boards of trustees, which delegate their powers largely to a president; while in foreign universities, control is chiefly in the hands of the faculties. This difference is one of degree rather than of kind; for American faculties are actually granted some control by courtesy, while most faculties abroad are under the ultimate authority of a ministry of education, or of some other governmental or clerical body. But this difference of degree makes all the difference in practice. Foreign faculties ordinarily control their own policies or are well represented on bodies which have this power; while American faculties at best share with trustees, administrators, and alumni in the management of their institutions. (These three groups just named, with few exceptions, simply do not exist outside of this country.) At the worst, American faculties are dominated in varying degrees by one or more of these elements. There is no common conspiracy against the professoriate here: trustees are sometimes dominated by administrators, or *vice versa*. Political scientists may recognize in all this the American zeal for checks and balances. But whatever the combinations and permutations of power among presidents, deans, trustees, legislators, and alumni, it is rare indeed that faculties play that predominating rôle which is taken for granted in other lands. How this came about also merits consideration.

IV

In tracing the history of any institution, one may distinguish between those changes which were internal to it, and those which reflected alterations in its social or cultural environment. In the case of higher education, one recalls that the first universities were autonomous groups of scholars and students which were quite *en rapport* with their medieval environment. They provided students with a training which, although professional in purpose, contained general or liberalizing elements.¹ During the Renaissance and the religious upheavals which ensued, however, the universities failed to adjust promptly to the changing scene and lost much of their intellectual leadership. Those on the Continent gradually abandoned their residential colleges, and devoted themselves simply to training professional students.

With the advent of the Enlightenment, new life stirred in Continental schools. Secularization set many of those in northern Europe free to react to the intellectual stimuli of the times. As a result, the traditional interest in passing on inherited knowledge was supplemented by a growing concern for extending its bounds. Then the nationalistic enthusiasms of the revolutionary era led governments to take over old and to found new institutions, which began to be viewed as the voices of their respective states. These trends reached their height in the German universities of the nineteenth century, which emphasized the research-centered, professional training of mature students—all for the good of the Fatherland.²

The German universities enjoyed the advantage of more or less liberal environments, conducive to the *Lehrfreiheit* essential to those seeking to enlarge knowledge. Ministries of education controlled the funds, but ordinarily left appointments and policies to the faculties. Tenure was secure. And the students had the advantage of professional motivations and of general *Lernfreiheit*. Further, they were the products of advanced secondary schools

¹ C. H. Haskins, *The Rise of Universities* (New York, 1923), 10 ff.

² R. F. Butts, *A Cultural History of Education* (New York, 1947), 273 ff.; Paul Farmer, "Nineteenth Century Ideas of the University: Continental Europe," in M. Clapp (ed.), *The Modern University* (Ithaca, N. Y., 1950), 3-26; A. Flexner, *Universities: American, English, German* (New York, 1930), 311 ff.

(*gymnasia*), which although narrow and rigid, trained well for advanced studies.

The English universities, in contrast, had become after the Renaissance simply shadowy collections of residential colleges. They abandoned strictly professional training, and provided instead advanced secondary schooling to upper-class students. These lads prized "college life" as much or more than they did intellectual pursuits. Hence Oxford and Cambridge already exhibited, by the seventeenth century, the basic pattern which was to be inherited in the American Colonies; that is, of autonomous "colleges" offering general education to "*undergraduates*."¹ In an age when dissenters were excluded, unfortunately, the English institutions did not even provide good examples of that pattern.²

V

The first American colleges, Harvard and William and Mary, were founded in attempts to reproduce the English type of university college. But they, and other colleges which followed, gradually diverged from this model in three important ways. First, the secondary training they provided became more elementary, probably because it lacked as good a base as was provided by the English "public schools." Second, no such collections of colleges were formed as existed in Oxford and Cambridge, since circumstances in the American environment made for a scattering of separate institutions all over the country.³ Third, the English tradition of faculty autonomy was finally abandoned in the first two colleges and was not even asserted in the others. Various factors were involved in this transformation, such as the need for immediate public aid which implied public oversight, the desire of interested churches to maintain orthodoxy, and so on. Instead of maintaining faculty rule, as in England, the government of

¹ J. B. Conant, *What Is a University?* (Cambridge, Mass., 1938), 37; A. Gray, *Cambridge University . . .* (Cambridge, Eng., 1926), 41 ff; C. E. Mallet, *A History of the University of Oxford . . .*, I (London, 1924), 30.

² W. H. G. Armytage, "Precedents and Projects: Further Aspects of the Civic University Tradition in England: 1660-1731," *The Universities Review* (Bristol, Eng.), Vol. 23 (May, 1951), 173, 176.

³ G. W. Pierson, "American Universities in the Nineteenth Century," in Clapp, *op. cit.*, 66 ff.

American colleges was vested in self-perpetuating trustees, who supposedly represented the public interest after the manner—let us say—of the boards of English hospitals. And since these trustees were nonresident, they had to create a new official to whom they could delegate something of their power; that is, the president.¹

In all of these respects—the rather elementary training, the isolation of each college, and government by trustees and presidents—the American college became more like an English “public school” (that is, “prep school”) than it was like an English university. This fact is often overlooked, apparently because of the confusing semantics of such terms as “college” and “university.” For more than two centuries, there was nothing “higher” about American “higher education.”

The colleges were managed by presidents serving as paternal despots, or—at times—by trustees in the same rôle. A lingering English tradition that professors were more than employees was occasionally echoed in the courts until the 1870's; but thereafter judges began to rule that they could be dismissed without cause.² In this, the law was simply catching up with practice. When a professor was dropped, or even an entire faculty, there was no more protest than there might be in preparatory schools today. It must be recalled that the old-time professors did little research, and were viewed as advanced pedagogues in a society which accorded small respect to teachers in general.³

The need for real universities, with research faculties, was expressed by many observers from the 1790's on but with no results until after 1870. It is true that schools of law and medicine were loosely associated with certain old colleges, even before the Revolution; and that, after about 1825, numbers of independent technical and medical schools were established. But

¹J. E. Kirkpatrick, *Academic Organization and Control* (Yellow Springs, Ohio, 1931), introduction; A. Lawrence Lowell, *At War with Academic Traditions in America* (Cambridge, 1934), 282 ff.; S. E. Morison, *Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century* (Cambridge, 1936) I, 53; II, 450; Pierson, *op. cit.*; R. L. Kelly, *The American Colleges and the Social Order* (New York, 1940), 31 ff.; C. F. Thwing, *A History of Higher Education in America* (New York, 1906), 78 ff.

²Kirkpatrick, *op. cit.*, 189 ff.

³H. K. Beale, *History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools* (New York, 1941), 10 ff.; Rolnick, *op. cit.*, Chs. 1, 2.

none of these pursued research, any more than did the colleges.¹ The delay in founding advanced institutions was by no means the result of mere ignorance. For as the fame of Paris and of the German universities spread after 1820, one critic after another declared that our colleges were only *gymnasia* and deplored the lack of really "higher" institutions.

A cross-section of the continued demand for real universities, as inspired by German example, may be found in the proceedings of the Convention held in New York City at the time of the founding of New York University in 1831.² Commenting on this in a German journal, Professor Müncke of Heidelberg advised Americans to found universities, but to keep them entirely separate from preparatory schools like colleges or *gymnasia*—advice that this country was later to ignore. He also urged that American professors should not be dismissed without legal investigation and proof of violation of duty—more advice which was ignored.³ Writing nearly forty years later, Professor Noah Porter of Yale repeated Müncke's points that colleges were *gymnasia*, and that German opinion was against trying to erect universities out of schools of this type.⁴

The explanation of American delays in founding universities may be found in several circumstances: (1) conservative devotion to "general education" and the values of "college life"; (2) the poverty of colleges, which had no funds for advanced work even if they desired it; and (3) the indifference felt by "practical" Americans for abstract studies or "pure" science.⁵ Similar indifference or opposition flourished in England, whence this country had inherited the college ideal.

Such attitudes finally broke down in both English-speaking

¹ On medical school attitudes, e.g., see R. H. Shryock, *American Medical Research . . .* (New York, 1947), 18 ff.

² *Proceedings of a Convention of Literary and Scientific Gentlemen . . .* (New York, 1933, reprint of original edition of 1831), 13 ff.

³ Writing in the *Heidelberger Jahrbücher der Literatur*, No. 37, quoted in *Annals of Education*, I, Pt. 2 (1831), 457 ff.

⁴ In *The New Englander*, vol. 28 (1869), 319 ff.

⁵ Tocqueville analyzed this attitude well in the 1830's, and it is still with us. An interesting expression of it in the present century is R. T. Crane, *The Utility of All Kinds of Higher Schooling* (Chicago, 1909), 101 ff. For recent discussions, see M. Curti, *Growth of American Thought* (New York, 1943), 141 ff.; I. L. Kandel, *The Cult of Uncertainty* (New York, 1943), 32 ff.; Shryock, *op. cit.*, note 2 on p. 32.

countries after 1870.¹ By that time, the achievements of German research were becoming more obvious, and, in addition, more applicable to technology, agriculture, and medicine. Such values could be appreciated by the most practical of peoples. The immediate stimulus for the founding of advanced institutions in this country came from leaders who returned here after German training. The process of setting up universities was bound to be expensive; but the industrial era was now providing much larger funds than had ever been available before.

Certain leaders wished to found universities without any associated colleges, just as they had seen them abroad. But, as a general system, this would have been impractical; for the base on which such universities rested—the *gymnasium*—was lacking here. Educational historians usually overlook the fact that we *could* have had such superior high schools if they had been desired. Indeed, a few were set up before 1850; and I happen to be the proud possessor of a B.S. degree given by one of them—the Central High School of Philadelphia. Such institutions could have saved at least two years' time in training professional men.² But, in any case, the colleges were too well established—and later the usual high schools as well—to permit of a general revolution in secondary education.

This does not mean, I would add in passing, that we must rest content with the present situation. Although it is not feasible and probably not desirable to abandon the present system of high schools and colleges, attempts should be made to supplement this in some way which will accelerate the training of professional men and other leaders. Some of us have long suspected that the "3-3-4" sequence delays the progress of highly intelligent students, however "socially mature" they may become in following it. It seems desirable, therefore, that further experiments be tried in which such students are encouraged to go ahead as rapidly as their interests and abilities permit.³ The formal arrangements

¹ C. C. Gillispie, "English Ideas of the University in the Nineteenth Century," in Clapp, *op. cit.*, 46 ff.

² F. S. Edmonds, *History of the Central High School of Philadelphia* (Philadelphia, 1902), *passim*; *Hand Book of the Central High School . . .* (Philadelphia, 1930), 17 ff.

³ It is granted that there may be difficulties with this in the present American environment. Experiments with three-year colleges at Harvard, Hopkins, and perhaps elsewhere, were abandoned a half century or more ago.

at Chicago, the new program at Hopkins, and certain experiments being made—as at Goucher—by the Ford Foundation, all point in this direction. If they prove successful, it does not follow that their universal adoption would be immediately in order. There is room for more than one pattern in higher education.

The actual establishment of universities after 1870 followed two procedures. The Johns Hopkins set up a college, but so subordinated it to the graduate and professional schools that the result was a close approximation of a Continental university. New state universities also subordinated colleges to professional and other vocational schools, and were followed in this by non-residential urban institutions. The best known Eastern universities, however, evolved in most cases from old colleges—with some stresses and strains in the process.¹

It is a truism that the colleges and universities expanded rapidly after 1890 in numbers and size, many of them spending large sums on ornate buildings and grounds. The intramural picture lost its early simplicity. The classical curriculum was replaced at the college level by the elective system, which facilitated the introduction of the social sciences and the expansion of the natural. The faculties were organized in—and divided by—departments which reflected increasing specialization. Meantime, the typical university set up more (and sometimes unnecessary) vocational schools, some of which operated on the undergraduate level and so competed with the “arts college” on the same campus.

It was assumed, however, that students must complete college work before entering a graduate school; and improved law and medical schools later made the same requirement. The sharp separation of general and professional education which ensued was, I think, unfortunate. We greatly need some professional motivation on the undergraduate level, and some continued liberal education in the professional schools.

If the new universities had been dissociated from colleges, they would have possessed their own graduate faculties. As it was, the same personnel had to serve both college and graduate school—to the detriment, I fear, of secondary-level teaching in the one,

¹ See, notably, G. W. Pierson, *Yale College: An Educational History, 1871-1921* (New Haven, 1952), *passim*.

and of research and graduate training in the other. Hence arose those problems anent "general education" and "teaching *versus* research" which have returned to haunt us at the present time. Research men usually benefit from giving graduate instruction; but this is not at all the same thing as saying that they should serve as college teachers.

Research experience as a factor in the training of college teachers was long ignored; since 1900 it has been over-emphasized—to the neglect of other aspects of their selection and preparation. This training problem is complex, since, within any group of graduate students, some will become college teachers who do little specialized work; others will evolve into professors who pursue both college teaching *and* research; and still others will serve as research men who would prefer to do no undergraduate teaching. It seems unwise to attempt any separation of these three types on the graduate level; first, because it is hardly feasible, and, second, because the category into which some of them will later fit cannot be determined in advance. Given the peculiar American combinations of undergraduate teaching, research, and research-training, some nice adjustments in graduate school programs are indicated.

VI

So much for the evolution of the forms and functions of higher education in this country after 1870. Much of this transformation occurred within the single generation between 1890 and 1920. What were its implications for the academic profession?

It must be recalled, first, that the creation of universities and the strengthening of many colleges brought in new types of professors. These men were well-trained research workers, accustomed to think for themselves. They would not be satisfied with the status of routine teachers. Some would enjoy opportunities for outside service, which made for a sense of independence. For them, the ivory tower became more and more a fiction, though it persisted in the popular mind and still serves critics of the academic guild.

One must admit that under these circumstances certain professors became—shall we say—a bit "difficult." Many an administrator—and even this Association—has had cause to realize

this. A recent writer quotes a German proverb that "*Ein Professor ist ein Mann der andere Meinung ist*"; of which I suppose the English equivalent is Carl Becker's remark: "A professor is one who thinks otherwise." But, eccentrics and exhibitionists notwithstanding, the significant thing was the appearance of a more critical state of mind among the stronger faculties. Their attitudes were apt to clash with those of presidents, who meanwhile were becoming more conscious of their own powers and responsibilities. A word about this administrative story is therefore in order.

The expansion of functions within universities, and to a lesser degree within independent colleges, naturally modified the administration of these institutions. Presidents themselves were changing; for example, they were now usually chosen from the professors rather than from the clergy. Beset by growing responsibilities for funds, public relations, internal coordination, and so on, presidents lost contact with students and with a considerable part of the faculties. The larger the institution, the more was this true. Certain caustic critics of the presidency insisted that it involved an impossible combination of duties.¹

Yet able presidents found at least working solutions in the delegation of authority. Various vice-presidents, deans, assistant deans, business managers, registrars, and department chairmen were appointed—a process which accelerated after about 1930. The pattern was further complicated by the persisting nature of the undergraduate college as a quasi-secondary school. Parents still expected college authorities to act *in loco parentis*, and so deans of men, of women, and of freshmen also had to be added.² From an administrative view, the total set-up proved more or less effective; but it removed the presidents of large institutions still farther from faculty members. And it is the resulting administrative

¹ E.g., Upton Sinclair, *The Goose Step* (Pasadena, 1922), 383 ff.; T. Veblen, *The Higher Learning in America . . .* (New York, 1918), 175. For more objective discussions, see C. P. Schmidt, *The Old-Time College President* (New York, 1930), 40 ff.; H. P. Rainey, "Some Facts About College Presidents," *School and Society*, XXX (Oct. 26, 1929).

² C. R. Griffith, "The Changing Structure of Higher Education," in N. Burns (ed.), *The Administration of Higher Education Under Changing Conditions* (*Proceedings*, Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Education, 1947); McGrath, *op. cit.*, 15 ff.

hierarchy which so surprises foreign observers, particularly where it seems to have evolved from the relatively simple organization of older colleges.¹

The elaboration of administrative posts also worried native observers, who saw in the growth of such personnel a latent threat to the position of professors in their own institutions. Thus Henry Allen Moe, of the Guggenheim Foundation, recently quoted Hans Zinsser's remark that "The administrative camel has crowded the intellectual pilgrim out of his tent"; and went on to say to a university audience:²

In your own world, I fear your little administrators, and especially your would-be administrators, your coordinators, your integrators, your setters-up of plans and charts and tables of organization and mechanisms. You are letting the smart operators get into the drivers' seats. . . .

The growth of the hierarchy resulted in part, as noted, from emerging complexities in university structure. But it is a serious question whether this explained all. European universities were by this time handling, in many cases, thousands of students, within four or five faculties, and doing more research than were most of those in this country—all of this with almost no hierarchy whatever. The old suspicion arises that Americans sometimes organized for the sake of organizing. And here again, one must recall the social environment.

An expansion of administrative offices and controls appeared early in the twentieth century in various industrial nations. This became more marked in the United States after World War I. In corporations the trend took the form of control by directors and chief administrators; in government, it made for an almost autonomous bureaucracy. Great reputation was acquired by "top executives" and even by "junior executives." Although business prestige suffered during the depression of the 1930's, men began

¹ Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston, 1945), 177 ff.; M. Caulery, *Les Universités... Aux Etats-Unis* (Paris, 1917), 43 ff.; E. R. Holme, *The American University: An Australian View* (Sydney, 1920), 34 ff.

² "The Power of Freedom," *The Johns Hopkins Magazine*, Vol. 2 (April, 1951); reprinted in *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, Vol. 37 (Autumn, 1951), 467 ff.

to speak of "the managerial revolution."¹ A Swedish observer found, throughout American society, a pattern of strong leadership and mass passivity. And he linked together the facts that corporations were now managed by directors rather than stockholders, unions by "bosses" rather than rank and file, and universities by presidents and boards rather than professors.²

Many were aware, by the early 1900's, that American universities were indeed taking on something of the appearance of business corporations, possessing their directors (trustees), executives (administrators), and skilled employees (faculties).³ In the public mind and in that of trustees, the prestige of business executives was more or less extended to academic administrators. This was not altogether a blessing for the latter, for it tended to set them off from the professors, and to produce among the faculties an unhappy division between pro- and anti-administration groups. Here and there a president confessed to being a "lonely man" who had difficulty in distinguishing between friends and sycophants.

This was all the more true because professors themselves were impressed by the managing hierarchy, and some of them hoped to climb into it. This phenomenon of the professor or minor administrator who desires to become a major administrator is peculiar to this country. It is said openly that professors are constantly "competing for advancement" to executive posts.⁴ In so far as this is true, it is not an unmitigated evil; for it is certainly desirable that presidents *should* be chosen from among the professors. Nonacademic presidents—and I would include in this category those whose university experience has been primarily managerial—may not understand or have much sympathy with the academic tradition. Nor is there any convincing evidence that presidents from the "outside" are more successful than ex-professors in fund raising and public relations.⁵

¹ M. Curti, et al., *An American History*, II (New York, 1950), 402 ff.

² G. Myrdal, *An American Dilemma . . .* (New York, 1944), 718, 719.

³ See, e.g., H. S. Pritchett, "Shall the University Become a Business Corporation?" *Atlantic Monthly* (Sept., 1905), 290 ff.

⁴ Bowman, *op. cit.*, 102.

⁵ See Harold Taylor, "The Task of College Administration," in H. Benjamin (ed.), *Democracy in Higher Education* (New York, 1950, Tenth Yearbook, John Dewey Society), 27 ff.

It would doubtless be wise, in most cases, not to appoint as presidents or deans those professors who have long sought such "recognition," since this group will include a large proportion of those who desire authority for its own sake. Rather would it be preferable to select qualified professors who have not sought such posts, but who are willing to accept them from a sense of duty.¹ For there is no doubt that, American institutions being what they are, a competent and devoted administrator can do wonders for his college or his university.²

On the other hand, the "advancement" of professors to executive positions does have unfortunate implications which cannot be ignored; for example, the oft-deplored loss of able teachers or research men to administration. This is serious, if we can assume that good teachers or investigators are even more rare than good managers. But most significant is the further evidence that administration, as such, is more highly valued than are the ends which all universities are expected to serve.

It is not clear that the legal rights of presidents were any greater in 1900 or 1930 than they had been in 1870. But the general stature of the presidency had grown with the expansion of institutions and of administrative personnel. Trustees must have found it increasingly difficult to know fully their own schools, and became in consequence more dependent on "prexy." Encouraged by this trend, some presidents bethought themselves of the business analogy. As early as 1905, it was declared that corporation experience over the preceding decades had shown the need for "one responsible head," and that university corporations were no exceptions to this rule. Presidents appeared who frankly held that they should direct "their" universities as did executives their business companies, or even as captains did their ships.³ And within another generation certain large institutions, such as

¹ The qualities which make a great president are not necessarily those which make a great professor. L. Wilson remarks that of thirty well-known presidents, most had not been prominent as professors: *The Academic Man*, 85.

² See M. E. Haggerty, *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions* (Chicago, 1937), 102. I am not quite so cynical as was "a despondent colleague" of about 1900, who remarked that the only professor worthy of a presidency was one who would decline it; J. Jastrow, in J. McK. Cattell (ed.), *University Control* (New York, 1913), 333.

³ So wrote an anonymous president in the Middle West (said to be of Ohio State) in 1900; E. W. Knight, *What College Presidents Say* (Chapel Hill, N. C., 1940), 7.

Syracuse and Pittsburgh, were ruled by presidents who were practically dictators. No wonder that inaugurations began to suggest coronation ceremonies. One can understand the view of Professor Brandl, of the University of Berlin, who observed in 1907 that the American president was "*ein autoritativer Führer*" who had no counterpart in German universities.¹ It should be added, however, that there were other presidents who believed that leadership should be qualified by consideration for faculty opinion.

Professors were quick to deny the analogy between business corporations and universities, and were joined in this by some presidents. It was easy, as President Eliot of Harvard noted, to point out the differences. The business existed in order to make profits, the university in order to spend them. In a business, the experts served the corporation; in a university, the corporation was there to serve the experts. But what academic men most disliked in the analogy was the implication that they were employees in the ordinary sense—to be "hired and fired."

It was this feeling which, in a general way, inspired early protests of the 1890's against administrative domination. How could the status of professors be improved, as long as they were so overshadowed within their own walls? Many matters were obviously involved—appointments, freedom, tenure, salaries, policy decisions, and so on. Although most academic men may not have been concerned about these things before World War I, here and there vocal leadership appeared which made for wider professional self-consciousness. Sharp criticism of the existing situation was voiced in both popular and scientific journals, and was occasionally echoed even in newspaper editorials.

Reactions varied among such professors as were aroused. Some suggested that they should align themselves with trustees against presidents; others urged cooperation with the latter in presenting a common front to trustees. There were even demands for a recovery of "faculty rule."² All this was not merely wishful thinking, for actual practice still varied widely among institutions. Considerable faculty autonomy had survived in some New Eng-

¹ In the *Deutsche Rundschau*, April, 1907, quoted by Creighton in Cattell (ed.), *op. cit.*, 398 ff.

² See especially, J. Jastrow's chapter in Cattell (ed.), *op. cit.*, 320 ff.

land colleges; and this was maintained in certain of them, notably at Yale, right into the twentieth century.¹ Moreover, strong law and medical faculties managed their own affairs in large measure. At the other extreme, the staffs of weaker colleges and of the "state normal schools" remained as subordinated as during the preceding era.

More was involved in faculty protests than tensions between presidents and professors. In the background loomed a changing economy, and the need for mutual adjustments between this and higher education. Merchants had been influential since Colonial days, and industrialists also from about the 1830's on; but it was not until after 1870 that "big business men" came into almost complete control of the nation's economic life. Within another decade, they exerted wide influence in politics.² Emerging as the dominant element in the social order thereafter, their influence was increasingly felt within colleges and universities.

This process was probably not as sudden as most writers have assumed. "Manufacturers, merchants, and other substantial classes of the community" had been well represented on college boards as early as the 1830's, in addition to agriculturists, clergymen, and others. Protests had been made even then that such groups knew little about college affairs, and that the powers of boards should be largely taken over by the faculties.³ But until the 1870's, the tone of most colleges was still set by the clerical and agrarian elements which had been most influential up to that time. Thereafter, the relative number of clergymen on boards steadily declined and that of business men increased. This reflected both a specific desire to secure the latter's financial support, and a general recognition of their mounting influence in society.⁴

No doubt the more "hard-boiled" industrialists knew little about higher education, and cared less. Many of this generation were not "college men." But the more thoughtful realized that universities might influence public opinion on economic matters,

¹ Pierson, *op. cit.*, 129 ff.

² T. Cochran and W. Miller, *Age of Enterprise* (New York, 1942), 129 ff.

³ See, e.g., Jasper Adams, "On the Relation Existing Between the Board of Trustees and Faculty of a University . . .," *Introductory Discourse . . . of the American Institute of Instruction* (Boston, 1838), 141 ff.; also J. F. Jackson, in *The Knickerbocker Magazine*, XXVIII (July, 1846).

⁴ H. P. Beck, *Men Who Control Our Universities* (New York, 1947), 60, 126; Metzger, *op. cit.*, 145 ff.

and that business in turn might mold the universities. Carnegie, for example, urged that all this could be brought about to mutual advantage. He envisaged business men and professors as co-operating in a joint leadership of American society. Admitting that academic men would receive no great financial return, he held that their compensation would come through increasing prestige.¹ Meantime, millionaires could—and did—aid higher education by endowing private colleges and universities on a totally new scale. Various motives were involved in this, but certainly the end result was expansion of academic opportunities and personnel all along the line. No doubt the parallel increase in appropriations for state institutions resulted, in part, from similar support by business interests.

The fact of business aid, limited but significant, therefore could not be denied. The intent was another matter. Carnegie pictured business leaders as altruists who wished to raise the status of college teachers. But at least a few leading professors, especially those opposed to monopolistic business trends, seriously doubted this intent. They noted that certain donors, after founding universities, strove to direct their policies, though this was not so in every case. And the critics feared that boards composed largely of business men would—perhaps unconsciously—assume that they were simply managing another corporation. The clergy, who had once led the boards, had had their limitations; but they had at least possessed a sympathetic understanding of education. Could as much be expected from industrialists and bankers?²

There was now no question that, legally, presidents served as the chief executives of trustees, and professors as their expert "employees." But the boards could, if they wished, follow Carnegie's precepts. They could, as a matter of courtesy, provide *Lehrfreiheit* to the faculties. In a few institutions, notably at Hopkins and later at Cornell, they did just that, and had the cooperation of Presidents Gilman and Schurman in the process. The latter even secured the election of professors to the board, in order to assure the trustees' understanding of faculty opinion. The arrangement continues at Cornell to this day.

¹ Metzger, *op. cit.*, 88 ff.

² J. P. Munroe, in Cattell, *op. cit.*, 465; Veblen, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

There were other encouraging developments in the decades which followed 1900, which were often overlooked in the heat of controversies over tenure and freedom. Whether from principle or expediency, trustees ceased to deal directly with courses, textbooks, and discipline. Unless the president was a particularly dominating one, this left such matters largely in the hands of the departments involved. In like manner, the initiation of appointments and promotions fell within the province of departments concerned, although deans and presidents occasionally exercised a veto power.

These gains had their limitations, to be sure. Few departments would risk a veto by recommending men who were known to be distasteful to the dean, and beyond him to the president or trustees. In like manner, few faculties would urge policies known to be opposed by the administrative group.¹ Some presidents, moreover, simply initiated policies with or without a gesture of faculty approval. Under these circumstances, faculty meetings were reduced to the consideration of mere trivia and routine. The results were stultifying, and, in the long run, confirmed the suspicion that professors were to be treated in fact, as well as in law, as employees.

VII

This suspicion was associated with some soul-searching about the general status of professors in American society. Now and then it was claimed that their position was declining because of the loss of faculty autonomy. The "old time" college teachers were said—historical evidence to the contrary notwithstanding²—to have been men of dignity and distinction.³ In contrast, the plight of the profession in the twentieth century was often expressed in extreme terms. Each generation sees this "quondam

¹ Concerning the indirect pressures on professors to conform, see, e.g., Guy S. Ford, *On and Off the Campus* (Minneapolis, 1938), 305.

² Cf., e.g., an editorial in *The Critic*, April 9, 1881, in which it was remarked that college teachers were those who had failed in one profession or aspired to another. College posts were viewed "as an asylum for decayed clergymen."

³ J. J. Stevenson, "The Status of the American College Professor," *Scientific Monthly* (Dec., 1904), in Cattell, *op. cit.*, 370; H. M. Wriston, "Fire Bell in the Night," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors* (Autumn, 1949), 441.

idol," the professor, slipping further "until he is now full low." So wrote Dr. T. J. Ladd in 1902.¹ Two years later, another professor observed that the academic man was now "more helpless than the humblest clerk in a department store."² Especially bitter comments were made on the inadequacy of salaries, said to be lower than those of skilled labor. At the same time, professors were expected to maintain a pose of gentility beyond their means. ". . . how becoming for the richest civilization on record," wrote Professor Barzun in 1945, "to number its men of learning among the lowest grade of office workers—once cleric, now clerical."³

There was also much concern about the disdain in which professors were held by the public at large. Were they not viewed as inept, impractical, and as protected in an easy occupation from the realities of a competitive society? What Republican editors thought of academic men in the 1930's was clearly indicated by their caricature of the "New Deal" in cap and gown. Some men even avoided in public the use of their title "professor"—". . . an appellation to which," remarked the French observer Siegfried, "a certain amount of irony is attached in English. . . ."⁴ There was no question, declared an American observer, that professors are "held in contempt by business men and scorned by the laboring classes."⁵ Some will recall H. L. Mencken's kindly comments on professors as "yokels," "boors," or "peasants in frock coats," who ranked socially somewhere between Methodist ministers and brickyard owners—"certainly clearly below the latter."⁶ Upton Sinclair carried such views to their logical conclusion by saying bluntly, in 1922, that: "There are few more pitiful proletarians in America than the underpaid, overworked, and contemptuously ignored rank and file college teachers."⁷

Various academic men, admitting the unsatisfactory status of their profession, explained it in a number of ways. Americans, they pointed out, had long admired men of action—doers rather than thinkers. Elementary and secondary school teachers had

¹ Quoted in Bowman, *op. cit.*, 78.

² Quoted in Knight, *op. cit.*, 11.

³ *Teacher in America*, 290.

⁴ *America Comes of Age* (New York, 1925), 95.

⁵ Bowman, *op. cit.*, 27.

⁶ *Prejudices: Third Series* (New York, 1922), 249 ff.

⁷ *The Goose Step*, 390.

always had a lowly position; and because there were so many of them, the position of college teachers had been similarly regarded. Then, too, it was partly the professors' own fault. Many isolated themselves by being as incomprehensible as possible, and took little interest in public affairs.¹ If they would come out of their ivory towers, they might be better understood and appreciated.

It is difficult to separate fact from fiction in this matter of social status. Since all who taught above the high school level were viewed as college professors, the size of the profession was far larger than in any other country; and there was a correspondingly wide range in reputations. The status of different fields of specialization also varied. My own view is that most protests had some validity, but that they were often exaggerated by intensity of feeling.

Take, for example, the indictment of the salary scale. The average salary of college professors in the early 1900's was above that of certain other professional groups—school teachers, librarians, clergymen. And it was probably an exaggeration to claim that academic income was below that of skilled labor in 1900 or even in 1925.² It is rather in the last decade that the salary situation, combined with taxes, has become so serious that it threatens the whole future quality of the profession. Some do not yet realize that recent declines in real income have forced professors, in effect, to contribute more and more to the financial support of their institutions. And this has occurred at a time when such additional support could have been supplied through a more rapid increase in tuition, since average real income has risen throughout the nation.³

The feeling among academic men that their social position is unsatisfactory certainly has some justification, but also presents puzzles. We are all familiar with the slightly ironic or condescending attitudes which are occasionally encountered off the campus.

¹ Bowman, 11 ff., 167 ff.; M. Curti, "The American Scholar in Three Wars," *Journal of the History of Ideas*, III (June, 1942), 257.

² Metzger, *op. cit.*, 26 ff.

³ C. D. Long, *Professors' Salaries and Inflation* (Report to the Johns Hopkins Chapter, American Association of University Professors, March, 1952), 6. See also report of this Association's Committee on the Economic Status of the Profession, *Bulletin*, Vol. 37 (Spring, 1951), 111 ff., and reports by the same committee, *ibid.*, Vol. 34 (Winter, 1948), Vol. 35 (Winter, 1949) and Vol. 37 (Winter, 1951-1952).

Even students and alumni have been suspected of a lack of veneration. The contrast here with public attitudes abroad has already been mentioned.

On the other hand, it is a curious fact that all rating scales, usually based on opinion-sampling techniques and on supposedly objective procedures, rate "professors" very highly. Rating scales relating only to professions invariably place the prestige-rank of professors in second or third place. Only physicians consistently outrank them.¹ The President's Commission on Higher Education, in listing nearly all occupations, reported in 1947 that academic men rated seventh in a total of ninety.² How explain this, in comparison with the lowly position which many professors have ascribed to themselves?

There may be, of course, technical flaws in the scales. Or we may have to go behind the reactions of those who were questioned. Perhaps the same person who might casually ridicule a professor would, nevertheless, rate him highly if asked to give a careful and solemn judgment. Another possible explanation is that the prestige of the profession has risen during the last generation. Many of the most bitter academic complaints antedate 1925, while most rating scales have been applied since that time. In view of the increasing services of university men to business, industry, and government since 1930, it seems likely that professional prestige has indeed risen. This is not because Americans have ceased to prize action above thought, but rather that more academicians have qualified for recognition by becoming men of action. By implication, here, the social scientists and even more the natural scientists are likely to enjoy more general prestige than the human-

¹ The relative status of a profession changes with time: a century ago, the status of physicians in the United States was none too high; see R. H. Shryock, "The American Physician in 1846 and in 1946," *Journal of the American Medical Assn.*, Vol. 134 (May 31, 1947), 417 ff. On recent rating scales involving professors, see W. H. Fox, et al., "Prestige Ranks of Teaching," *Occupations* (Oct., 1951); G. W. Hartman, "Prestige of Occupation," *Personnel Journal*, XIII, (Oct., 1934); H. J. Walter, *The Relative Social Prestige of Twenty Professions . . .* (Wisconsin thesis, 1935), 23 ff.; Logan Wilson, *The Academic Man* (1942), 16.

² *Higher Education for American Democracy* (New York, 1947), Vol. 6, p. 44. Moreover, of the six categories rated above professors, only two are really occupations (physicians and diplomats).

ists¹—although, actually, certain humanistic scholars could be of the greatest practical value to the nation at the present time.

As a matter of fact, the status of any professional group is a very complex matter. Sociologists have differed concerning factors affecting status, about the nature of class distinctions, about the relation of "intellectuals" to social classes, and so on.² But all would agree that the academic profession benefits from certain intangible factors making for prestige, and at the same time suffers from relatively low income as compared to certain other professions and business groups. All would probably agree also that the quasi-employee status of academic men further lowers their general prestige. In contrast, the professional independence of physicians and lawyers may contribute something to their social standing.

VIII

At any rate, it was the conviction of many professors that implied employee status hurt their position more than anything else. The most disturbing evidences of this were the actual dismissals. These were never numerous: conformity usually could be secured by less drastic measures. But they focused attention on the whole question of academic freedom as this ideal was taking form. For how could freedom be maintained without tenure? The professors were now claiming, once more, a privilege denied to business employees, but on the ground that this was really in the interest of higher education and therefore of society at large. To many trustees, nevertheless, it seemed preposterous that what they most prized—their power to make unquestioned decisions—could be attacked by those they viewed as their employees.

This view was sometimes openly expressed. As J. H. Raymond wrote in the *Chicago Tribune* in 1899:

¹ This has been well illustrated by the general inclination to defer students in engineering, physics, medicine, etc., from military service under the current draft laws, but not to so defer students in the humanities, or even in the social sciences. See *A Critique of "Education and National Security . . . "* (American Council of Learned Societies, Washington, D. C., Jan. 24, 1952).

² R. Centers, *The Psychology of Social Classes* (Princeton, 1949), 26 ff.; M. M. Gordon, "Social Class in American Sociology," *American Journal of Sociology*, LV (Nov., 1949), 262 ff.; R. Merton, "The Sociology of Knowledge," *Isis*, XXVII (Nov., 1937), 499; Metzger, *op. cit.*, 6 ff.

As to what should be taught . . . they [the professors] should promptly and gracefully submit to the determination of the trustees . . . If the trustees err, it is for the patrons and proprietors, not for the employees, to change either the policy or the personnel of the board.

The trustees of seven well-known universities, when interviewed, indicated their approval of this statement.¹

Granted the premise here that faculty members are "employees," this logic was hard to refute. But the academic answer implied a different assumption; that is, that professors should be given the status of "officers of public trust." Judges were appointed and paid salaries, but their opinions were free; and society would benefit if professors were given the same status. The issue, academic men held, was that of the values of freedom *versus* those of indoctrination.

At the turn of the century, the old theological restraints were disappearing, except in strictly denominational schools. Hence dismissal cases usually involved economists or sociologists, who were most likely to criticize the prevailing economy and business leadership. They came to grief on such themes as labor, railroads, and the currency. One professor drew up a list of nine prominent men who were dismissed during the 1890's on these grounds. The list, incidentally, included several college or university presidents. The famous Ely case at Wisconsin ended with a strong affirmation of academic freedom by the trustees of that University,² but no such clear-cut victory was usually obtained. Newspapers and journals took sides, and the issue aroused widespread public interest.³

After 1900, nevertheless, a lull ensued in the debate over academic freedom. In the conservative South, cases still arose which involved the older racial and religious controversies, such

¹ Metzger, *op. cit.*, 103 ff.

² M. Curti and V. R. Carstensen, *The University of Wisconsin, 1848-1925*, I (Madison, 1949), 508 ff.

³ More has been, and is being, written about the history and nature of academic freedom than about any other matter pertaining to the academic profession in this country. See Metzger, 185 ff.; S. Rolnick, 103 ff.; R. B. Sutton, *op. cit.* (note, p. 33); and R. P. Ludlum, "Academic Freedom and Tenure: A History," *Antioch Review* (Spring, 1950), 3 ff. The absence of any large literature on the same theme abroad, before 1933, seems significant.

as the John Spencer Bassett episode at Trinity College (later Duke University) in which President Kilgo won a victory for freedom. Scattered dismissals also occurred in other parts of the country over the next decade, but the issue was not so clearly drawn as in the 1890's. The social atmosphere became more liberal in an age of "muckraking" and "trust busting," and open demands that professors support business interests became less common. Indeed, another vested interest—the American Federation of Labor—urged after 1902 that the colleges should present the labor viewpoint.¹

A notable development, between 1900 and 1915, was the emergence of a procedure by which professors might cooperate in defending academic freedom, as they now envisaged it. During the preceding two decades, scholars had organized national associations representing special fields of study; and it was to these that they now turned for support on this issue. When Professor E. A. Ross of Stanford University was dismissed, upon the insistence of Mrs. Stanford, the American Economic Association appointed in 1900 a distinguished Committee to investigate the case.² This group reported that academic freedom had indeed been violated. Meantime, Professor A. O. Lovejoy and several other professors at Stanford had resigned in protest.

Again, when Professor Mecklin of Lafayette College was dismissed in 1913, the American Philosophical Association and the American Psychological Association appointed a joint investigating committee. This group proceeded to interview all involved, in an effort to proceed in a judicial manner. They too reported that freedom had been violated, and censured the president for refusing information requested.³ Here were the chief elements in the procedures to be adopted later by the American Association of University Professors.

Tensions involving freedom in general reappeared when World War I began in 1914. During the next year, there occurred the dismissal of Scott Nearing from the University of Pennsylvania. Personalities as well as economic opinions were probably involved, but the trustees refused any explanation and certain of them im-

¹ Rolnick, *op. cit.*, 236 ff.

² E. A. Ross, *Seventy Years of It . . .* (New York, 1936), 79 ff.

³ Rolnick, *op. cit.*, 276 ff.

plied that they had a right to dismiss employees. Since Nearing was a popular teacher, the case attracted wide attention; and the whole debate of the 1890's was repeated.¹ Evidently, academic freedom had not been fully achieved.

Following suggestions which had been made as early as 1900, a number of The Johns Hopkins University professors urged in 1913 that a general association of professors be organized. This could promote the welfare of higher education in general and defend academic freedom in particular. In the same year, a joint committee of three social science organizations made similar recommendations, and continued to advocate these over the next year or two. The efforts of the several groups were coordinated at a meeting in New York in 1915, when the American Association of University Professors was organized. John Dewey of Columbia University became the first president, and Arthur O. Lovejoy of The Johns Hopkins University, the first secretary. The New York meeting was by no means representative of the academic profession at large. But it was probably fortunate, in terms of strategy, that the small group there assembled was made up of professors of outstanding reputation.

Important decisions were made at this first meeting; for example, to admit only those who were primarily engaged in teaching or research.² It was also necessary to decide between the merits of a "union," or of a professional association analogous to the national bodies in law and medicine. Certain critics had ridiculed college teachers for their "subservience" to business men, and for their "rabbit-like" indifference to the fate of dismissed colleagues. Professors were also dubbed "the third sex" which lacked the "guts" to unionize and fight back.³ Despite these taunts from the left, the original meeting decided to avoid the model of organized labor and to set up, rather, a professional association in the guild tradition.

¹ Rolnick, *op. cit.*, 289 ff.; L. Witmer, *The Nearing Case . . .* (New York, 1915), *passim*. It should be added that, as a result of this controversy, the trustees established much improved tenure rules at Pennsylvania.

² Membership criteria were originally more exclusive than now, but were shortly liberalized. There was probably some advantage, at first, in presenting a front of experienced, full professors. See the Association's *Bulletin* (March, 1916), 15.

³ Bowman, *The College Professor in America*, 113 ff.

At its organizational meeting the Association authorized the appointment of a Committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure. At the Association's Annual Meeting on December 31, 1915-January 1, 1916, this Committee presented its report on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure, which is now known to the profession as the 1915 Declaration of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure.¹

This Report, which lies at the base of most of the Association's later statements on both freedom and institutional government, received wide attention. So, too, did the formation of the Association as such. There was, at this time, no similar body elsewhere in the world. Some newspapers and journals pointed with pride, while others viewed with alarm. The division was largely that between liberalism and conservatism; but even some liberals were pessimistic about practical results. Conservatives, including some university presidents, insisted on viewing the Association as "the professors' union," despite the care taken to disavow any such nature.² The prospect of investigation by an "outside" organization was understandably disturbing to local trustees or administrators. Yet several of the first investigations, such as that of Colorado College undertaken at a moment's notice by Dr. Lovejoy, proceeded smoothly, and resulted in improved tenure arrangements which promised something for greater freedom.

By this time, the colleges had also organized in the Association of American Colleges, and this body adopted its own report on "Academic Freedom and Tenure of Office" in 1917. This more conservative statement held that the retention as well as the appointment of professors should not be determined by "students, alumni, or even the faculty," but rather by "the trustees acting in conjunction with the president."³

During its first two years, when it was weakest in numbers, funds, and experience, the American Association of University Professors had at least the advantage of operating in the climate created by Wilsonian Liberalism. It marked out its future course

¹ *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors* (Dec., 1915), 15 ff.; reprinted in the *Bulletin* on several occasions, the most recent reprinting, Vol. 34 (Spring, 1948), 141 ff.

² Bowman, *op. cit.*, 115; Rolnick, *op. cit.*, 303 ff.

³ *Association of American Colleges Bulletin:* Vol. 3 (April, 1917), 48 ff.

by setting up not only Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure, but also Committee T on the Rôle of Faculties in College and University Government, and the latter group made its first report in 1917. But with American entrance into the War, the storm broke. Liberalism was submerged by hysterical patriotism, and dismissals occurred all over the country on the unexpected ground of disloyalty.

A few presidents and institutions, notably Eliot and Harvard, stood firm for academic freedom, but professors themselves were divided. Even Committee A conceded that dismissals could be justified by disloyalty. Unfortunately, disloyalty—like older charges—could be used to mask other motives for dismissal. This accusation of concealment was made against President Butler and the Columbia trustees when they dismissed Professor Cattell in 1917; for example, by Professor Charles A. Beard, who then himself resigned in protest.

Unfortunately, a tense atmosphere persisted after the War, as a result of "the great red scare" precipitated by the Russian Revolution. It was then that the demands for teachers' oaths, as proofs of loyalty, first appeared. Even mass dismissals, which had not occurred for many decades, now took place occasionally. The *New Republic*, for example, reported in 1921 that Chancellor Bowman of the University of Pittsburgh was boasting that, in his first year there, he had dismissed fifty-three members of the faculty.¹ Professors had reason to ponder the statement of President Hadley of Yale, made years before, that tenure and freedom depended more on "community attitudes" than on "the form of corporation controls."

Harry W. Tyler, Professor of Mathematics on the Faculty of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, became the General Secretary of the Association on January 1, 1916, and the Association's Central Office was established at that Institute. In 1929 the Central Office was moved to Washington, D. C. The membership of the Association was originally small and its growth slow; but when Dr. Tyler retired from the General Secretaryship in 1934 the membership had reached the moderately encouraging figure of 11,765.

¹ Bowman, *op. cit.*, 104 ff.

During recent years the membership has grown more rapidly and is now well over 40,000.

Dr. Tyler was succeeded in the General Secretaryship by Walter Wheeler Cook, Professor of Law on the Faculty of The Johns Hopkins University. Professor Cook served in that office until September, 1935, when he accepted a professorship in the School of Law of Northwestern University. Pending the selection of his successor, Dr. Tyler, Editor of the Association's *Bulletin*, served as Acting General Secretary. Ralph E. Himstead, Professor of Law of Syracuse University, became General Secretary of the Association on June 1, 1936, and has served the Association in that office since that time. For most of its history, therefore, the Association has been served by only two General Secretaries, Dr. Tyler and Dr. Himstead. This fact has contributed greatly to continuity in the policies and philosophy of the Association and to its achievements.

Among the several committees which the Association eventually set up, those on Academic Freedom and Tenure and on the Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government were most central to its objectives. The former became an especially hard-working group, because it was responsible not only for developing principles but also for the oversight of investigations into dismissal cases. The Committee, or its representatives, did not rush into every case simply to defend a dismissed professor as such: it sought rather to sift evidence from all possible sources and then to pass judgment on the basis of its own standards. No doubt the professorial ideology, as Metzger terms it, influenced these processes; but most reports were sufficiently judicial in nature to impress many administrators as well as professors. One recalls the statement on the Cattell case at Columbia, in 1917, as an outstanding example of these early reports.

As to the standards of tenure which the Committee could apply, a statement of these was formulated in 1915, and endorsed by the Association at the end of that year. In 1925 the American Council on Education called a conference of various constituent members,

including this Association,¹ in order to formulate a shorter statement on academic freedom and tenure. The "1925 Conference Statement," then formulated, was approved by this Association in 1926. Notable was the even earlier adoption of this 1925 Statement by the Association of American Colleges—which in 1915 had clearly differed from that of the professors on principles of tenure and freedom. College presidents and college teachers were coming to accept similar standards.

Cooperation proceeded thereafter on these matters between the two national bodies representing, respectively, the presidents and the professors. Joint conferences, beginning in 1936, finally prepared a new "1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure," which was promptly endorsed by both associations. Subsequently approved by five other national bodies, this has remained the standard formulation to the present time. It provides not only a restatement of general principles, but also specific principles on tenure and on acceptable procedures in cases of dismissal.²

IX

The increasing membership of the Association after 1935 indicated growing confidence in its defense of tenure and freedom. This statement must be qualified, however, in two ways. First, many able men in prominent institutions remained indifferent, presumably because they felt personally secure and because they were unaware of any need of professional *esprit de corps*. This was—and is—unfortunate, for their moral support would be valuable to the profession as a whole. The attitude also may prove unfortunate in their own interest, since recent events have shown

¹ Between 1916 and 1925, many specialized professional societies found it useful to be represented in centralized, nonofficial "councils" representing large areas of interest—beginning with the National Research Council (natural sciences) in 1916. The American Council on Education represented a large number of bodies concerned with various aspects of higher education. Unlike the other national councils of this type, the personnel of its committees seems to have been made up largely of administrators rather than professors. Hence the "voice of higher education" in Washington has usually been that of presidents and deans.

² The Statement is published annually in the Association's *Bulletin*; e.g., this issue, 115 ff.

that even a strong university may become involved suddenly in the issue of freedom.¹

Second, doubts were at times expressed—even by members of the Association—concerning the effectiveness of Committee A procedures. The usual protest was that investigations, even if they led to reports favorable to dismissed teachers,² rarely secured their reinstatement. Often, too, the reports appeared a considerable time after the cases were closed, so far as local action was concerned; so that members inquired why the Association “always arrived only after the fire was out.” Such queries were natural enough, but indicated a lack of understanding of the procedures involved in the operations of Committee A. In the first place, these procedures were judicial in nature and took time—judges never “arrive” until after the crime has been committed. Second, the resources of the Association—both in securing voluntary service by busy professors and in providing staff in its central office—were very limited. This, too, meant delay.

But most important is the fact that the Association rarely expected to save the original job of the individual, although it often aided him in finding a new one. Few administrations, having taken definite action, would reverse themselves under open pressure. The effectiveness of Committee A work lay rather in preliminary mediation—in making it known to administrations in advance that any future dismissals might be subject to investigations. This prospect was more effective than many members realized. Unfortunately, in the nature of the case, the evidence could not be presented to them. They did not see the increasing number of presidents who first consulted the national office, before deciding about a possible dismissal. They were not even aware, in some cases, when tenure in their own institutions was improved all along the line by a correspondence which could never be published.

The test is rarely the single, publicized case; it is, rather, the long run trend. And there is no question that this—with limits

¹ Dismissal cases are not looked into except upon request of the individual concerned. On various occasions, teachers not members of the Association have so appealed. No distinction has been made in such instances, since the principles involved remain the same.

² This term is used, unless otherwise noted, to cover the entire instructional or research staff regardless of rank.

set by a changing social atmosphere—has been in the direction of improved tenure. This does not automatically provide complete freedom, since administrations which are forced to grant tenure may find various means for discouraging professors whom they would prefer to dismiss. But it remains true that tenure standards are essential to at least a minimum achievement of academic freedom.

Since the Association strives to prevent dismissals which it considers unjustifiable, the view is often expressed that the Association should by the same token cooperate in dismissals which *are* justifiable—for example, on the ground of incompetence. The Association has always recognized this obligation in the principles of tenure it has advocated, and this obligation is now effectively implemented in the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure—specifically in the provisions for probationary appointments and in the procedures to be followed in seeking the termination of the tenure of teachers for justifiable cause; procedures which provide for the adducement of evidence upon which to base the decision of whether or not there is justifiable cause for a dismissal. In this connection the importance of the provisions for probationary appointments cannot be overemphasized. Most of the tenure cases brought to the Association for consideration are the results of the neglect of administrative officers to observe the work of the teachers concerned during their probationary appointments.

Committee T had no such time-consuming duties as Committee A, but its basic problem was more complex—to define the rôle of faculties in institutional government and to bring about a recognition of that rôle. The enthusiasm of some early critics (1900–1925) for the restoration of complete “faculty rule” had precipitated some discussion of faculty qualifications in this connection. Those opposing faculty management claimed (1) that many professors did not wish to have this burden thrust upon them; and (2) that, in any case, academic men were not qualified to carry it. The handling of funds and public relations transcended their training and capacities. There was, I think, some validity in these arguments; for example, the trustees of most private universities probably are more effective in raising

funds than would be their respective faculties. The faculties controlling foreign universities rarely have to face such an obligation.

On the other hand, there was some exaggeration in the objections to faculty participation. Much of the disinclination of professors to be bothered by administrative assignments could be explained by the trivial nature of what they were ordinarily asked to do. The same circumstances explained something of their lack of preparation for major administrative duties. Denied such opportunities, many professors affected scorn for administration as such. They underestimated its importance in the American setting, and the real ability which it demands.

Actually, there is some evidence that—at least in strong institutions—faculties can effectively take over a large degree of management. The example of Yale College, about 1900, has been mentioned; and one could probably place the Sheffield Scientific School in the same category. Or consider the case of the American Philosophical Society, the oldest scientific institution in the country. Its members, largely academic men, have always managed its affairs—including a substantial endowment—without benefit of either trustees or appointed administrators. If this Society were now to undertake a graduate training program, its general nature would be quite analogous in some ways to that of the old English Universities.

The most potent obstacles to reviving “faculty rule” were probably not the particular arguments noted, but rather (1) the great momentum acquired by the usual American forms of university government, and (2) the Anglo-American tradition that the management of philanthropic institutions (for example, voluntary hospitals) was primarily a lay function. Also in the picture were two other factors already noted; that is, the unusual complexity of universities in this country, and the apparent zeal for organization as such—each of which implied a need for many administrators, if not for many trustees.

In consequence, the plea for revived faculty management was probably never taken seriously in most quarters; certainly not by Committee T. The question became an academic one, in the figurative as well as the literal sense. Abraham Flexner once

dismissed it, in retrospect, by declaring that he had never known anyone to desire such management "who really understood education both at home and abroad."¹ One may agree with this on pragmatic grounds, and yet express regret that circumstances force this conclusion upon us. For it seems likely, as some foreign critics have noted, that direct lay and administrative control of truly higher education (graduate and advanced professional schools) is undesirable in principle. Such control is perhaps in order for some colleges, and certainly is so for high schools; and the fact that it has also been imposed on higher education is apparently the price we pay for combining and confusing different levels of education within the same institutions. All that can be done now is to make the best of the peculiar American situation in which we are all involved.

Despite the general opposition to a revival of "faculty rule" in either universities or colleges, this arrangement is approached today in a few small, experimental colleges. One of these, for example, requires the president to secure a vote of confidence from the faculty every three years—a provision, incidentally, which one might hesitate to endorse.² It seems desirable that such experiments be tried, but to date they have occurred outside the main course of events in American higher education.

Committee T, facing realities, recommended cooperation between faculties and trustees in regard to the choosing of administrators and the determination of educational policies. But after several reports and studies over three decades, the Committee could only report in 1948 that there had been some "slow improvement" in these matters in most institutions.³ Since this was not too encouraging, some professors urged that faculties should be directly represented on boards of trustees.⁴

Meantime, an interesting development was actually taking place within college and university government. This was the

¹ *I Remember* (New York, 1940), 335.

² C. Eggersten, "Some Practices in Faculty Organization," in H. Benjamin (ed.), *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*, 113.

³ Paul Ward, Chairman, "The Rôle of Faculties in College and University Government," *Bulletin*, Vol. 34 (Spring, 1948), 55 ff.

⁴ A. R. Thompson, "The Professor and the Governing Board," *ibid.*, Vol. 35 (Winter, 1949), 678 ff.

growing participation of the alumni associations. The organization of these bodies, in some cases, went far back into the nineteenth century; but their size grew rapidly only in the expansion period after 1890. So did their influence, since the nostalgia of "old grads" became a potential source for moral as well as financial support. Their leaders, by this time, were usually successful business or professional men—much as were trustees. These circumstances explain the relative ease with which alumni societies now obtained substantial representation on the governing boards. There were even, in extreme cases, claims that the alumni ought to control the colleges "which they supported."¹

This trend could hardly be ignored by the faculties, particularly since they feared that alumni influence was not an unmixed blessing. Some trustees apparently gave more heed to alumni opinion than they did to that of teaching staffs—not only in relation to intercollegiate athletics but also with respect to other serious matters.² In any case, the query was naturally raised: if the alumni were represented on the boards, why not faculties also? Here the matter rests at the present time, and action can be taken only on the voluntary decision of the present boards. This lends added significance, nevertheless, to the continued efforts of Committee T and of the national office to establish better communication and understanding between faculties and trustees.

X

We are all painfully aware that the academic profession entered, about a decade ago, another period in which the social atmosphere threatens our traditional liberties. The pressures now, as in 1917–1927, relate to "loyalty," both to our traditional economy and to the nation. Certain factors have carried over into present tensions from the early years of the century; for example, the continued efforts of faculties to influence the larger aspects of

¹ W. F. Buckley, Jr., *God and Man at Yale* (Chicago, 1951), 115 ff. It is contended here that at Yale the alumni already are "the ultimate sovereignty."

² In a recent account, e.g., of how the University of Pennsylvania elected to remain a private institution in 1921, one of its trustees credits this to alumni action, but does not mention what attitude the faculty may or may not have taken toward this vital decision; Ralph Morgan, "Our Society's Past and Future," *Pennsylvania Gazette*, Vol. 50 (Feb., 1952), 10 ff.

educational policy. It will be recalled, for example, that in the recent California controversy, one trustee declared that the issue was not at all that of Communism but rather that of "disciplining" certain members of the faculty.¹

We are all aware, too, that present demands for "loyalty," and for tests thereof, have been made more acute and more pervading because of a context of world struggle between two social orders. In consequence, we are faced not by the mere evasion or distortion of academic freedom, which was usually apparent in the early dismissal cases. Instead, one hears again—for the first time in almost fifty years—frontal attacks on this ideal. It is now asserted, as it was in Nazi Germany or is today in Communist states, that academic freedom is undesirable in principle. It is said that professors must defend the views of those who employ them: otherwise they should be dismissed. It is as simple as that. The old demand for religious indoctrination has also been revived; even, apparently, for colleges usually viewed as secular institutions.²

It is too early to tell just how significant these extreme attacks may be. Perhaps it would be expedient to ignore them. But in so far as they express the real convictions of any number of persons, it will be difficult and perhaps unwise to ignore them. The whole tradition of liberalism, in which academic freedom is a vital element, stands today threatened by both the extreme right and the extreme left. It is easy to find inconsistencies, uncertainties, or other weaknesses in liberalism, whose values are subtle and complex. The dogmatic simplicities of the extreme right or left can be made to stand out in bold contrast. All this makes an appeal to many, particularly in a time of crisis.

¹ *Petition for Writ of Mandate, Submitted by Stanley A. Weigel to District Court of Appeal . . . California, Third Appellate Dist.*, Appendix 6 (1950), 77.

² See Buckley, *God and Man at Yale*, *passim*; and his recent article "The Treason of the Professors," *American Mercury*, LXXIV (March, 1952) 29 ff. Note also the address of the Very Rev. Hunter Guthrie, S.J., "The Sacred Fetish of Academic Freedom," in *Vital Speeches of the Day*, XVI (Aug. 1, 1950), 632 ff. He declared that "the sacred fetish of academic freedom is the soft under-belly of our American way of life, and the sooner it is armor-plated by some sensible limitations the sooner will the future of this nation be secured from fatal consequences . . . This is not a matter of opinion . . . Freedom will come from the truth, but freedom rarely leads to truth" etc. A similar statement by Father Guthrie was inserted in the *Congressional Record* by Senator (later Attorney General) J. H. McGrath, according to *The Christian Century*, Vol. 67 (June 28, 1950), 781.

Fortunately, there are now certain factors which make for a stronger defense of academic freedom than was possible fifty years ago. First and foremost is the existence of this Association: of what it stands for and what it has achieved. It is true that it faces its own difficulties in relation to limited resources and facilities. And these, I take it, reflect an underlying handicap; namely, the fact that the first interest of professors is usually in their special fields, while their concern for the academic profession as a whole is secondary. The academic guild is, in a sense, a collection of a score or more of distinct professions. (Compare this with the solidarity of the medical men, who are physicians first and specialists thereafter.) This basic limitation notwithstanding, the achievement of this Association over the last generation in advancing all professional interests has been a creditable one; and in no area has this been more true than in the defense of academic freedom.

Evidence of this is provided, unintentionally, in the degree of antagonism which the Association arouses in those who would suppress freedom. There may be those who think, for example, that the Association did little or nothing in the recent California case; but not so Mr. Neylan, who led those Regents who insisted upon the oath and the resulting dismissals. In an address of last year, he referred to ". . . the little known but increasingly powerful and sinister organization known as the American Association of University Professors." He added that although his hearers probably knew nothing of this body or "of its hierarchy," yet "this institution, responsible to no one, is mentioned as a nemesis which can destroy any great university."¹ These remarks were hardly intended as good publicity for this body and their possible ill effect is not to be underrated. Yet their implications concerning the effectiveness of the Association, however distorted, are complimentary in the extreme.

This does not mean that there is any ground for complacency: far from it. We shall need all our energies, and perhaps new efforts and new procedures, if we are to successfully combat—especially in the academic sphere—that "subtle, creeping paralysis

¹ J. F. Neylan, *Address . . . Commonwealth Club, San Francisco, Nov. 23, 1951*, p. 7.

of thought and speech" which has been spreading throughout American society during the past few years.¹ There is great need for enlightening the public about academic values as we see them; for the public is certainly not well informed about our standards and objectives, or about the significance of these for American society.²

Fortunately, I think we can count on the support of other professional societies, of a certain number among the educated public, and—more specifically—on some enlightened trustees who now believe in academic freedom. Indeed, if the popular pressures engendered by certain politicians and newspapers should increase, one can foresee situations in which faculties, administrators, and trustees will have to stand together in the defense of freedom. Indeed, such situations have already arisen.³ This, again, makes it essential that mutual understanding among these three groups be encouraged in every possible way.

To this end, all that has been said about cooperation remains as pertinent now as it ever was, but this is not enough. We have reached a time, I am convinced, when trustees should seriously consider the establishment of better means of communication with the faculties. Just how this can be done will depend on local circumstances: it is the spirit rather than the form of the thing which will count. It may be adequate, in one case, if trustees meet professors in an informal, social setting—provided that this has some seriousness of purpose and occurs with reasonable frequency. In another case, it might be helpful to set up a standing, joint committee of trustees and faculty to exchange views on educational policy.

The most formal arrangement would be the admission of two or three elected faculty members to the boards—just as alumni members have been admitted. Such action will not be taken

¹ *New York Times*, Jan. 21, 1952.

² On public misapprehension, especially about communism in the colleges, see, e. g., H. M. Wriston, "Fire Bell in the Night," *Bulletin*, Vol. 35, (Autumn, 1949) 434 ff.

³ A notable illustration is afforded by the correspondence between Frank B. Ober and the Harvard authorities in 1949. No one could ask for a finer defense of academic freedom than was provided therein by President Conant and by Grenville Clark, a fellow (trustee) of the University. Reprinted in *Bulletin*, Vol. 35 (Summer, 1949), 313 ff. Cf. Buckley, *op. cit.*, 136 ff.

easily, since it involves not only a voluntary sharing of authority, but also divergence from the inherited view about lay control which has already been mentioned. Other objections may be made; for example, that two or three men could not adequately represent the faculty; or that each additional element within a board may make it more difficult for that body to function smoothly.

On the other hand, the only purpose of such an arrangement would be to make sure that faculty opinion was heard on basic policies. This opportunity has long been provided at Cornell, with little or no difficulty; and is taken for granted in the great English universities, both old and new, at the present time. The election of faculty trustees, or one of the other arrangements suggested, would not only aid faculty morale at a critical juncture, but might well prove of advantage to the boards themselves. Several of the recent academic controversies would probably never have occurred, if there had been a frank exchange of views between trustees and professors before precipitating actions were taken.

It therefore seems desirable that we not only maintain our defense of freedom, but that we seek energetically to implement this by improved relationships within the government of our institutions. This is not merely consistent with the American democratic tradition: it is essential to its full realization. It is to such a program that I hope the American Association of University Professors will dedicate itself in the years before us.

TO MY WIFE, WITHOUT WHOSE HELP . . .

A Preface to Professorial Prefaces

By EDWARD FIESS

Bard College

Scattered through tens of thousands of volumes, buried unobtrusively in the pages marked by Roman numerals, there abounds the evidence of a phenomenon as yet unnoticed by sociologists. I refer to the concluding sentences so often found in prefaces and to the sentiments disclosed in dedications. For example, consider the common dedication which reads, "To My Wife, without whose assistance this work would have been impossible." This is type I-A in the formulas kept on file in publishers' offices in the manner of Western Union; although the use of such formulas is widespread, it is not considered auctorially correct.

Let us also mention and then forget the dedication which begins "Hunc librum carissimae. . . , " thus veiling tender sentiments in what Gibbon, in another connection, called "the decent obscurity of a learned language." (Publishers will gladly provide translations upon receipt of a stamped, self-addressed envelope from the reader who has small Latin but much intellectual curiosity.)

Likewise outside our province is the following kind of prefatorial conclusion: "And lastly I must express my gratitude to my sister. . . , who read the proofs of Chapter III, to my brother . . . , who advised me on the use of the Malayan material, to my nephew. . . , who checked all the references to English literature, and to my wife, who assisted in numerous ways." This nepotism-in-reverse, or levying toll on the entire family, is a dubious thing. A scholar's reach should exceed his grasp, but what's a graduate student for? Besides, we properly suspect that the cad who writes such words is only diluting the real debt which his colleagues readily admit, that to his wife.

But the true scholar, unless he is a bachelor, unhesitatingly

admits his indebtedness in explicit English. "Most of all, my wife has not only endured perusal of the drafts and revisions—the 'future' note, the 'abdicated' page—but has displayed a skill in searching that has come little short of the uncanny." (William K. Wimsatt, Jr., *Philosophic Words*.) By contrast with the previous examples, how frank and manly this is!

II

And now to our subject. Setting aside the stereotyped acknowledgments and the evasions of responsibility, what does the rest of the evidence point to? It indicates two things. The first is the true nature of the faculty wife, a selfless, slaving creature of remarkable endowments. She can compile indexes, heap up footnotes, amass bibliographies, copyread, proofread, check statistics, correct computations, conduct correspondence, catalogue reference materials, and digest articles in foreign periodicals. Frequently, she assists in the whole project "from initial conception to finalexecution." And still she has the time to train an unerring eye on faults of style and lend a restraining hand in matters of judgment. But above all, she can *type*. She types up to seventeen or "innumerable" drafts, frequently in Old English or in technical polysyllables. (Cynics may make remarks about the level of professorial salaries and the slimness of secretarial budgets.) Not only can she read between the lines but she must; she must be a Champollion to read between the lines, for that's where the next draft is, and she's typing it. Then there's the x-factor, "unfailing encouragement" and "unflagging support." Verily, the ladies are the secret weapon of scholarship.

The second phenomenon revealed has to do with the scholars themselves. They are a gallant crew. With tact and grace they show their gratitude. It was John Livingston Lowes who dedicated his study of Coleridge to his wife, "who like the wedding-guest could not choose but hear." Professor Diekhoff (*Milton on Himself*) slyly concludes a preface with the words, ". . . And, to my wife, who has studied well the precept of *Paradise Lost*, IX, 232-234. It is her book as well as mine." Milton tells us:

. . . Nothing lovelier can be found
In Woman, than to study household good,
And good works in her Husband to promote.

Milton does this to scholars. Professor Douglas Bush has dedicated a Milton study (*Paradise Lost in Our Time*) to "the 'sole Auditress' who listened more than once." The same writer, representing the school of gallantry-on-the-Charles, speeds another book (*Mythology and the Romantic Tradition*) on its way with the words, "The godmother declines to stand at the font."

Examples might be multiplied endlessly. But three points must be emphasized in conclusion. First, the scholar's wife is far more than an amanuensis, although she is that too. Secondly, the scholar knows the fact and knows how to acknowledge it. And lastly to my wife, who has assisted in no stage of this enterprise, neither originating the idea, nor planning the treatment, nor typing the manuscript, nor correcting the proof, nor removing even the grossest errors of style, I express gratitude for her having had many better things to do. Moreover, would it be fitting for womanhood to write its own panegyric?

INFLATION AND FACULTY ANNUITY PROGRAMS

By CARL McGUIRE

University of Colorado

Faculty annuity programs have been designed, up to now, on the basic assumption that the general level of prices would not rise significantly, even over an extended period of time. Fifteen years of experience with inflation have proved this assumption to be invalid and the development of a new type of faculty annuity plan to be imperative.

II

Annuities based on "riskless" investments have failed to provide adequate faculty retirement pay because of inflation and low earnings. The assumption that the price level would not rise appreciably in the future has caused past and present faculty annuity plans to be built around so-called "riskless" investments, *i.e.*, fixed-value investments which "guarantee" repayment of the principal sums of money contributed toward annuities by faculty members (and employing educational institutions), together with accumulated interest. "Guarantee" of repayment requires that annuity funds be invested in high-grade bonds and mortgages which will repay at maturity the promised amount, dollar for dollar.

The faculty annuity holder has in general not been treated very kindly by this type of investment. It is true that money put into fixed-value investments such as bonds has almost always been returned to him or held for him by the insuring company, dollar for dollar. But, in the sense of returning to him or holding for him a medium of exchange of comparable purchasing and want-satisfying power, he has not been protected. Programs originally believed to be adequate have not provided adequate annuities for faculty members because of continuing inflation. For example,

the sum of one hundred dollars placed in annuities in 1940 had the consumer purchasing power of only fifty-five 1940 dollars by early 1951. Monetary insecurity has thwarted the social security of the professor. In effect, inflation has expropriated a large portion of his savings in the form of annuities.

Nor have the rates of earnings on funds placed in annuity programs been attractive enough to compensate for the loss of purchasing power of principal. Insuring companies have been faced with a steadily falling rate of return, the average rate of earnings on the invested funds of insurance companies having dropped from 5 to 2.88 per cent in the twenty years through 1947. The annuity contract of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (hereinafter referred to as the TIAA) at one time carried a 4 per cent guarantee. This contract was discontinued on December 31, 1927. Since that time the successive annuity contracts issued by the TIAA have become progressively less favorable to the annuitant, until under the currently issued contracts the guaranteed rate of return is only $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. An apparently small difference in the rate of return has astonishing results when compounded over a period of time. Thus \$100 in principal invested at $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent compounded semiannually for thirty years grows to \$195.66 whereas at 4 per cent compounded semiannually the same \$100 snowballs to \$328.10, a difference of \$132 or 67 per cent in the total amount of the accumulation; total earnings swell to 237 per cent as much at 4 per cent as at $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

Faculty members, as investors in annuities, may be compared to the victims of a military envelopment, a "pincers" movement with two sides, on the one hand loss in the purchasing power of their dollars and on the other hand, a low and, in the past, decreasing rate of return on their investments. With the traditional type of annuity plan involving fixed-value investments the "pincers" movement is unavoidable. To shop around among various insuring companies is generally futile. There may be differences in company rates of return, but these differences are small and would in no case compensate for the depreciation of dollars contributed.

One colleague, a professional economist, writes:

Among the people who think about it, there is some feeling that we have been sold down the river. Interest accumulations, of

course, are insufficient to maintain the real value of principal. A number of us feel we could do better with the money ourselves if it were placed in our hands. Personally I look on my contract merely as a paid up life insurance policy and have no hope that I shall be able to retire on what it provides.

To counter the "pincers" effect on faculty members there has been a movement in recent years from "ten per cent plans" to "fifteen per cent plans," based usually on compulsory co-equal contributions by staff members and colleges amounting to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the faculty member's base salary. The effect of the introduction of these "fifteen per cent plans" is to reduce still further the professor's take-home pay and the institutional funds from which salary increases might be granted, at a time when real salaries are being cut by the rise in the cost-of-living and in taxes.

The faculty are almost "annuity poor," always getting "annuity pie in the sky by-and-by" with the continuance of inflation. The writer regards the placement of (about) one-seventh of a professor's total compensation in forced savings for an uncertain future as unduly large. Many university teachers have a higher present time-preference; they would like to enjoy that trip to Europe *now* when their study would be of more value to themselves and to their institutions. It also seems foolish for faculty members to borrow money at 5 per cent to build houses because they are compelled to invest one-seventh of their total employee compensation at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in annuity funds. It is folly to seek the answer to inflation and low earnings in increased contributions to the same sort of annuity funds that in the past have withered away in purchasing power.

"Riskless" investments have not provided protection to faculty annuity holders against the risks of inflation and low rates of return. Neither have they protected university administrations from additional future pension responsibilities. University administrators have found it increasingly necessary in recent years with the progress of inflation to establish supplemental annuity plans or to lengthen the years of service of faculty members in order that larger annual payments will be available on eventual retirement. Over a period of time supplemental annuities may cumulate to figures substantial enough to interfere to some extent with the

budgeting of current college expenses, including the salaries of the teaching staff. It is clear that "riskless" investments have not proved to be riskless.

III

The expectation that inflation will persist in the economy. "Creeping inflation" such as has been experienced in recent years will in all probability continue. By "creeping inflation" is meant a "step-wise" or "ratcheting" inflation that proceeds with uneven spurts, intervals of relatively stable prices being followed by periods of appreciable inflation of price levels. Short-run fluctuations in prices both up and down may be expected, but the long-run trend of the price level in the future will be upward without any periods of significantly lowered prices.

To some these remarks may conjure up the vision of an uncontrollable inflation of the type occurring in Germany after World War I and in China after World War II. There exists, however, sufficient knowledge of the technical measures necessary to contain price level changes within "reasonable" limits, and the consequences of hyperinflation would be so serious that the public would not countenance prices rising to such an extreme level, although this same public views creeping inflation with relative unconcern. The prodigious productive capacity of the American economy is reassuring, for runaway inflation appears to have occurred only when the productive plant of a country has deteriorated because of war, revolution, or natural disaster.

Reasons for anticipation of creeping inflation in the long-run future:

(1) *Upward price pressure from organized groups.* Unionized labor, organized farmers, and trade associations seek through higher prices to improve their economic positions. The general policy of these groups is indicated by the assertion that they do not wish to "hurt" any other group by lowering its prices; they simply wish to redress "inequities" which have placed them at a disadvantage to others through "unduly" low prices. Thus when organized labor feels wages are too low relative to the cost of living, the union does not generally seek to force down the price of farm products or household appliances; rather it tries to push

wages higher and "even out" the differential. If the union is successful in raising wages (and it may well be, for employers, expecting to recoup increased wage costs in higher prices for their products, no longer resist wage demands so vigorously as was once the case), the farmer may find that he must pay more for what he buys and he notes that he is no longer receiving a "parity" price for what he sells. Thus the familiar wage-price spiral appears. "Escalator" clauses in agreements often automatically lead to upmoving prices. When food prices increase and the cost of living rises, the union contract may provide an automatic upward adjustment in the hourly rate. If rising wages push up the prices of industrial or other products bought by the farmer, "parity" prices on agricultural products will automatically increase. If the wages of building trades workers rise, the building contractor may automatically be entitled to a higher price for his houses, even with a bid contract. It has become almost impossible to force a substantial readjustment of prices in a downward direction covering a sizable portion of the economy. The only practically feasible solution to price inequities seems to lie in an upward movement of the relatively depressed prices. The process of "evening out" intergroup prices turns out to mean "evening up". Whether organized groups show more or less restraint in pressing their demands in the future will influence the *rate* at which the price level changes, but will not change its general upward direction.

(2) *Debtor position of the federal government.* Debtors prefer "cheap" or "easy" money with which to repay or refund their debts, and to pay their interest. The dominant debtor position in the United States is occupied by the federal government, for it owes \$255,000,000,000, over one-half of the \$450,000,000,000 estimated total debts outstanding in this country, and it may have larger interest payments to make each year than all other debtors in the country combined.

Like other debtors, the federal government undoubtedly prefers easy money, but, unlike most other debtors, the federal government is in a position to take action to make its preference effective. The specific mechanisms whereby the federal government pursues its debt management policies are complex, but the keystone is found in the policy of support of the price of government bonds,

whereby the Federal Reserve System stands ready to purchase government bonds whenever their price softens appreciably on the market. Three arguments are offered to show why the price of government bonds should not be permitted to fall. (a) A fall in the price of government bonds is the same as an increase in the interest rate. If the government were to sell more bonds, its interest charges (already nearly \$6,000,000,000 a year) would rise even higher. (b) If the bonds are permitted to fall in price, it will be difficult in the future for the government to sell more bonds and keep them sold because investors will fear a further drop in bond prices and losses on the capital value of their investments in case of liquidation. (c) A marked decline in the price of government bonds would jeopardize the safety of such heavy institutional investors in governments as banks and insurance companies, for their assets would thereby experience a serious shrinkage.

Inflation is not possible unless, among other things, there can occur increases in the effective money supply of the country. These increases in the money supply are made possible through the bond-price support policy of the federal government because the commercial banks can increase their monetary reserves by selling their bonds at the (almost) guaranteed price to the Federal Reserve System, expand their loans to customers and thereby place more money in circulation. Recent modifications in government policy have not changed the fundamental character of this situation, although explanation of this conclusion would add undue length to this paper. The implications of government debt management policy are disturbing. In order to hold down one particular price, the interest yield on government securities, the government provides monetary fuel causing prices in general to flame higher.

(3) *General political acceptance of the responsibility of government to prevent deflation and its concomitant, depression.* A marked fall in the general price level would bring with it depression and unemployment. It is doubtful whether any political party would (or should) permit a fall in prices and a rise in unemployment such as occurred in the 1930's, and the federal government is as a matter of fact formally committed to a full employment policy through the Employment Act of 1946. This policy necessitates a

fiscal program whereby in years of unemployment government spending exceeds government tax collections, increasing the net spending power in the economy. It may be questioned whether such deficit spending can be restricted to periods when the policy is appropriate; otherwise an impetus to inflation is afforded. It is even possible that unemployment may exist without falling prices, *i.e.*, with stable price levels, so that countercyclical deficit spending may be justifiable and necessary but nonetheless inflationary, although this is a problem of too much complexity to explore fully here. At the very least it can be concluded that government fiscal action can be expected to prevent any marked fall in prices. The Keynesian "revolution" is here to stay and that revolution means the "euthanasia of the rentier" and hence of the traditional annuitant.

(4) *Increased demand for government services not accompanied by a corresponding increase in the willingness to pay taxes.* Countless individuals and groups are dedicated to the pursuit of government funds for their causes and projects. On the other hand, taxpayers are understandably reluctant to pay high taxes. The propensity of the public to demand services exceeds its propensity to accept taxes. It can be no cause for surprise that Congressmen should oblige both groups, citizens in their dual roles of the users of services and the payers of taxes, thereby creating inflationary deficit spending.

The chief counterbalance to inflation, productivity increases, will prove to be an inadequate preventive. The only substantial influence working in the direction of a fall in the price level, the per capita annual increase in productivity, is authoritatively estimated to amount historically to about 2 to 3 per cent per year compounded annually. If the factors causing inflation exert an upward price pressure of more than a few per cent per year, the productivity effect is cancelled out. Also, and importantly, this cause of lower prices on consumer goods does not strengthen the argument for annuities based on fixed-value investments, for it would not in itself cause the values of equities or earnings thereon to drop.

Military spending in the "cold war" is an immediate impetus to continued inflation. The inflationary impact of increased spending for defense purposes need not be labored. The price effects of the current phase of the "cold war" are all too apparent. At the

moment it appears that the rearmament program may taper off in 1953, so this factor is here classified as temporary and immediate, although it may endure as an inflationary influence in the economy for ten or twenty years.

The expectation of an upward price level movement is based on long-run considerations and is not dependent on military spending. The basic proposition of this paper, a continued upward price level bias, is not dependent on the maintenance of military spending, although a sharp reduction of such expenditures in the event that "peace should break out" would probably level out prices for the time being. The prediction of price level increases herein rests on long-run factors of a presumably more or less "permanent" character. These factors, outlined in earlier paragraphs, are all, it should be noted, of recent origin—largely within the last twenty years—and reference to past historical periods of price level declines does not demonstrate that price level declines are inevitably bound to recur in the future. The notion of a normal price level to which prices must return is an illusion. "That which goes up must come down" may describe the behavior of physical objects but it is not necessarily true of economic phenomena.

IV

The expectation that low rates of return on fixed-value investments will persist. An earlier section of this article pointed out why the debtor position of the government leads to a continuing low interest rate on government bonds. The rate on high-grade corporate bonds cannot for very long diverge greatly from the rate on governments, since any substantial rate differential would cause investment funds to be switched in sufficiently large amounts from governments to corporates to confine the differential return to its normal narrow margin. Table I below illustrates how

TABLE I—AVERAGE YIELDS OF LONG-TERM BONDS, 1935-1950

Year	Treasury Bonds, %	High-Grade Corporates, %
1935	2.79	3.46
1940	2.26	2.77
1945	2.37	2.54
1950	2.32	2.60

Source: *Treasury Bulletin*, March, 1945 and March, 1951.

closely the rate on corporates follows that on governments. Government encouragement to housing, public works (and probably to plant construction) through low interest rates and mortgage guarantees appears likely to continue, so no permanent increase in mortgage rates can be anticipated. Thus the rate of return on the principal forms of fixed-value investments will remain low. (To the limited extent that insuring companies are permitted to and do shift their investment funds to equities, such as common stocks, the earnings on annuity funds may, of course, increase.)

V

A new type of faculty annuity program based on variable-value investments, particularly common stock, would offer protection against the risks of creeping inflation and low returns on investment funds.

TABLE II—COMPARISON OF PRICE VARIATIONS OF BONDS, STOCKS, AND CONSUMERS' PRICES

	1939	1946	Jan., 1950	Jan., 1951
Consumers' Price Index ¹	99.4	139.3	168.2	181.5
Stock Price Index ²	94.2	139.9	135.1	168.6
Bond Price Index ³	91.5	103.6	102.1	101.2

¹ United States Department of Labor.

² Standards and Poor's Combined Index.

³ Average price of all listed bonds, New York Stock Exchange.

Source: *Survey of Current Business*, March, 1951, and 1947 Statistical Supplement.

A hedge against inflation is offered by the type of investment the dollar value of which increases as the price level moves upward. Bonds and mortgages (fixed-value investments) pay back dollar for dollar the amount loaned and hence during inflation cause the investor to suffer a loss of purchasing power. Common stocks, on the other hand, have no maturity date and no maturity value. Hence, they may vary in price in accordance with numerous factors such as earnings, dividends, value of company assets and market expectations. With the progress of inflation, other things being equal, earnings and company assets increase and therefore common stocks appreciate in price. Thus, from 1939 to 1951 stock prices nearly kept pace with the rise in the cost-of-living as measured by the Consumers' Price Index of the United States

Department of Labor. Consumers' prices rose about 80 per cent during this period and stock prices gained almost as rapidly, but bonds increased in value only about 10 per cent (due to the decline in the interest rate). Table II also illustrates the fact that common stock by no means moves at all times in exact parallelism with consumers' prices. From 1946 to 1950 prices rose a little more than 20 per cent, whereas stocks declined slightly. (Bonds also fell slightly.)

One often-cited study of stocks for the long-pull is the book *Common Stocks as Long-Term Investments*¹ wherein the author concludes that "the cumulative evidence of these studies favors diversified common stocks, even in periods of appreciating currency, such as from 1866 to 1897. Since 1897, with currency depreciating, the diversified common stocks selected are shown to have been by far the superior form of long-term investment."

Common stock is not a *perfect hedge* against inflation, particularly in case of the type of inflation we do not expect, namely, uncontrollable inflation. Nor is it the only hedge against inflation. Real estate, for example, may have advantages for this purpose, especially with hyperinflation, but it is difficult to buy and sell real estate at the times and in the amounts required by regular monthly contributions to annuity funds, whereas common stocks can be purchased and liquidated without lapse of time in convenient multiples.

The merits of "dollar-averaging" are inherent in the suggested faculty annuity plan. "Dollar-averaging" refers to the investment of approximately the same number of dollars month after month, such as would occur under a faculty annuity plan of the type presented. By this method more shares are purchased in low markets than in high markets over a period of time. The "dollar-averaging" principle affords the annuitant-investor over a period of time a lower average cost on shares purchased than the average market price during the period—irrespective of whether the market is falling or rising. (If this seems too good to be true, it is simply a practical illustration of the harmonic mean.) This method of investing does not necessarily or automatically prevent

¹ Edgar Lawrence Smith, Macmillan, 1924.

losses. However, if consistently followed over a period of time, it does assure that purchases will not be concentrated in periods of bullish enthusiasm and omitted in periods when market sentiment is gloomy.

Morgan Stanley & Co. have made a "severe" test of "dollar-averaging" by beginning at perhaps the worst possible date for that method of investment, namely, 1929, when stock prices were at an all-time high. The investment of \$100,000 annually in the common stocks in the Dow-Jones Industrial average at the average of the daily closing prices for each year from 1929 to 1950 gave the following results: \$2,200,000 invested over 22 years at the rate of \$100,000 a year would have had a market value at the middle of 1950 (prior to the post-Korean inflation) of \$3,343,221, with no reinvestment of dividends. In addition, dividends over $21\frac{1}{2}$ years totaled \$1,583,613, the yield per dollar invested averaging 4.3 per cent through the first ten (depression) years and 5.8 per cent in the second ten years. At January, 1951 stock prices and with dividends reinvested regularly the original \$2,200,000 would have amounted to about \$6,000,000, the writer estimates.

The fluctuations of common stocks in market value does not preclude their use by annuity funds. It is held by some that common stocks cannot be employed as part of a pension fund because fluctuations in the market value of common stocks would lead to serious losses when stocks must be liquidated to pay retiring annuity holders. A drop of 20 per cent in stock values would sharply change the position of a pension fund; an annuitant might receive a 20 per cent lower annuity than he anticipated. Retirements of members need not, however, mean the forced selling of stocks to meet annuity payments. Unlike banks and insurance companies, annuity funds do not need a very high degree of liquidity, for they have two sources of current cash receipts which should ordinarily be adequate for annuity needs, namely, (1) income from investments, and (2) regular monthly contributions from members not yet at the age of retirement. A pension fund of the type envisaged here might also keep a small part of its funds in bonds and other fixed-value investments for liquidation in event common stocks are unduly low in price. The objection to common stocks as investments for annuity funds on the grounds

of their price fluctuation reflects the fact that the objectors are thinking in terms of a short-run speculative "bull" and "bear" psychology and do not understand the long-run intrinsic merits of common stocks as investment media.

Common stocks also show up advantageously with respect to earnings. At the time of writing the same amount of money invested in common stocks yields two and one-third times as much in earnings as in high-grade bonds, as Table III illustrates.

TABLE III—COMPARATIVE YIELDS ON INVESTMENTS

	Moody's Aaa Bonds	Moody's 200 Common Stocks	Percentage Ratio, Common Stocks to Bonds
1920	6.1	5.5	90.1
1930	4.6	4.6	100.0
1940	2.8	5.3	189.3
1950 ¹	2.6	6.3	242.3
1951 ¹	2.7	6.3	233.3

¹ January.

Source: *Survey of Current Business*, March, 1951 and 1942 Supplement. Data for 1920 from Robert S. Driscoll, *The Growing Demand for Common Stocks*. Percentage ratios computed by the writer.

The significance of this differential yield on stocks over the long-run is startling! Thus \$100 invested at 6.3 per cent compounded semiannually would increase to \$642.91 in 30 years, whereas at 2.7 per cent the same \$100 would increase to only \$223.58. Earnings at 6.3 per cent would be over four times as large in thirty years as earnings at 2.7 per cent.

Whether earnings on common stocks will remain so superior to the yield on high-grade fixed-income investments is, of course, difficult to predict. It appears likely that interest rates on government bonds and on high-grade corporates will remain low, due to Treasury policy and the debtor position of the government. The yield gap may be closed to some extent, however, due to the increasingly favorable public attitude toward common stocks as investments. Large sums of money (including pension fund money) will continue to go into common stocks, thus pushing up their prices and reducing yields. In the immediate period of "cold wars" and "hot taxation" net corporate earnings (and hence dividends) may decline somewhat due to increased renegotiation of contracts, price rollbacks, and profit margin restrictions. Although the

yield differential may be reduced somewhat, it should nevertheless remain of substantial magnitude. (1) Common stocks are more speculative than high-grade bonds and it is to be expected that they will continue to yield a higher return to compensate for the risk. (2) The prospects of long-run growth for the American economy are encouraging because of technological development, population expansion, and other factors. Retention and plowing-back of a portion of corporate earnings should produce higher earnings and dividends in later years.

VI

The marked trend toward increased investment in common stocks by industrial pension plans and college endowments provides ample precedent for the placement of faculty annuity funds. A survey by the Cleveland Electric Illuminating Company made in early 1950 showed that at that time 53.5 per cent of the 114 larger companies in the country having trusted (as distinguished from insured) pension plans had investment portfolios which included some amounts of equity securities. Even the Federal Reserve Banks have turned in recent years to the employment of modest but increasing amounts of common stocks for their Retirement System. Morgan Stanley & Co. report that "practically all the companies which have recently established pension funds specify that common stocks are to be included."

Morgan Stanley & Co. also report an "increasing percentage of common stocks in college endowment funds," with 43.0 per cent on the average of the invested funds of the college endowments of 14 leading schools placed in common stocks as long ago as 1949. Universities in their search for escape from the twin problems of fixed-value investments—*inflation and low earnings*—have turned to investment plans including common stocks, real estate, and other items. Their experience has apparently been quite successful. It seems only logical to apply the same productive investment techniques and knowledge to annuity or pension plans for faculty members. The college professor who talks so much of "cultural lag" is himself the passive subject of cultural lag in the field of annuity investments.

VII

Some recommendations for possible incorporation in the proposed new type faculty annuity plan. It is the chief purpose of this article to establish the principle that "equities," particularly common stocks, should be the major form of investment of the annuity funds of faculty members. No attempt is here made to blueprint the technical details of such a plan or to consider exhaustively the problems of organization and administration which such a plan would confront. Intensive investigation by technical experts including actuaries, investment analysts, and economists should precede the introduction of a full-fledged plan on a national scale. Some suggestions may, however, be in order.

First, colleges and universities should offer their faculty members a choice of two annuity plans, an old-type plan based primarily on fixed-value investments and a new-type plan based primarily on common stocks. The faculty man could then select the plan which he believed best. He who favors traditional "conservative" annuities could so choose. Under present plans, the annuitant who shares the writer's assumptions about the future must perforce witness the placement of his share of annuity funds in investments which he is convinced will simply wither away in terms of real purchasing power. That the administrative mechanics of handling contributions with alternate plans would be no problem is demonstrated by the experience of those schools which now offer the faculty its choice of several old-type plans. Perhaps there should be three or four choices open to the faculty member—some ingenious possibilities suggest themselves—but in any case the two fundamental alternatives we have listed should be available.

Second, it would be preferable to establish the new type faculty fund on a nationwide basis. On a national scale it would be possible to minimize the costs of management of stock purchases; the problems of selection of securities would be handled by the technical staff of a large organization. The individual school would place the annuity contributions with a reputable company such as TIAA in the same manner as at present. It would then be the company's job with its staff of trained specialists to administer the annuity fund in accordance with the broad policies agreed

to by the participants. With a nationwide plan a faculty member could easily shift from one school to another without the minor complications attendant upon a change in annuity systems. Despite the advantages of a national plan it would be feasible for individual universities and colleges to offer the new-type plan without excessive cost, although the college would find itself directly facing the problems of selection and management of investments. This is not a new problem for institutions of higher learning by any means. Many schools now have investment committees or boards made up of experts in the investment field, often alumni serving without pay. Colleges might also channel their annuity investments through common stock investment trusts supervised by the Securities and Exchange Commission.

Third, the method of payment of the retiring annuitant might vary with circumstances. If a lone college were to establish a new-type plan, it would probably be best that the faculty member be presented with a traditional annuity purchased at the time of retirement from an insuring company with a single premium representing the annuitant's accumulated share in the college investment fund. A lone school would scarcely have sufficient members to be able to pay for as long as the retiree lives guaranteed retirement benefits based on sound actuarial considerations. As suggested, the responsibility for the retiring annuitant could be passed on to an insurance company. If this plan were set up by TIAA or some other organization on a national scale with numerous enough participants for actuarial soundness, it is believed it would be feasible to provide annuities directly from the new type fund without the necessity of a shift at retirement to traditional annuities. The benefits of the new-type investment might then continue after retirement. Intensive technical investigation would be necessary prior to the establishment of the proposed system on this basis of payment of annuities.

VIII

Effects of the proposed plan on the general economy of the country would be desirable. The general economy must have adequate quantities of "venture capital" if it is to be progressive in the

sense of providing a constantly improved technology and rising standard of living. Investment in common stocks tends to provide such venture capital indirectly, since purchases of established stocks involve the payment of funds to the more venturesome investors who then provide capital to new ventures. Investments in bonds tend to encourage the rentier class who are content with a low fixed rate of return and who do not provide the needed stimulus to the general economy.

Note: Apropos of the views expressed in this article, attention is called to the article, "Common Stocks and a Variable Annuity for College Pension Plans," by R. McAllister Lloyd in the Winter, 1951-52 issue of this *Bulletin*, pp. 726-734, concerning the College Retirement Equities Fund, recently established by the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America.

THE EDITORS

THE CHAPEL IN A LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

By TROY WILSON ORGAN

Pennsylvania College for Women

The liberal arts college in which I teach has recently dedicated a beautiful Georgian chapel, the gift of a few anonymous friends. For over a year we have watched the erection of this building, and have speculated on how a chapel would fit into our total educational program. Many of us on the faculty were not aware that the college needed a chapel or a religious program. This college was not founded by a religious denomination, and during the eighty years of its existence has been independent of church and state. During each school year a number of the assembly programs are religious in nature. The Y.W.C.A. is an active organization on the campus, an occasional vesper program is scheduled, and a few courses are offered in Bible and religion. Now for the first time we are fully equipped with all the appurtenances of a religious program, but we do not know what should be the nature of this program on our campus.

For the past several months we have brought to our campus a number of ministers and college chaplains to give us suggestions about possible chapel programs. We have learned that there are four types of chapels.

(1) At one extreme we have been told that no college chapel is effective unless it is organized as a church in a specific denomination. Such a chapel follows the program of its denomination as closely as possible. Those who defend this point of view tell us that this type of chapel is respected by people both on and off the campus because it is a frank and open presentation and propagation of a clear-cut religious position. The dean of this chapel is principally interested in winning adherents to his denomination, yet he is also expected to help students grow in the understanding and appreciation of other faiths which they happen to profess.

(2) Again we have been informed that the chapel program on a

campus such as ours can be more effective if the chapel is organized as a nondenominational church. The dean of the chapel can present a liberal interpretation of Christianity, avoiding issues likely to stimulate denominational rivalries on the campus. This church consists of members who affiliate without affecting their home church membership.

(3) A third possible chapel program uses the building as a lecture hall for the consideration of religious issues. The chapel becomes a clearing house for ideas on religion. Speakers from a wide variety of religious persuasions are invited to address the student body. No effort is made to organize the chapel into a church, nor to maintain continuity of program other than the obvious wisdom of allowing each major denomination to send a speaker to the chapel at least once during a student generation. Worship services at the chapel are secondary in importance to the lectures. The dean of the chapel is charged with the responsibility of getting speakers and of being available to help students in their religious problems.

(4) The fourth type of chapel program can best be described as group therapy. Through the careful use of music, drama, silence, and pageantry, the chapel program shapes the emotional overtones of the life of the college. Encouragement, sympathy, calmness, and other emotions can be fostered when occasions demand them. Campus situations such as an outbreak of homesickness after a vacation, or of anxiety before an examination period, or of ill will between campus organizations can be eased through a chapel exercise. The World Student Service Fund or the local Community Chest Drive are occasions in which the chapel may lend an emotional support. This sort of chapel program is designed to create a psychical background for the solution of problems, rather than to present and clarify religious ideas.

II

As we have heard these four programs described and defended, some of us have felt that the first type does too much, the last type does too little. Many of us disagreed with the chaplain who insisted that a chapel cannot be effective unless it is a denomina-

tional church. We want our chapel to be a place where all our students—Protestants, Catholics, Jews, agnostics, and an occasional Oriental student—may engage in corporate recognition of the importance of moral and religious ideals. This chaplain asserted that any chapel other than the one he proposed puts a clergyman in a difficult position: he is expected to be a man of conviction, yet if he has convictions and presents them, the college is dissatisfied; and if he has convictions and does not present them, he is a traitor to himself. On the other hand, many of us disagreed with another visitor to our campus who stated that the ideal chapel program steers clear of all theology, and devotes itself to enriching the emotional life of the students on the campus. While we do not object to this aspect of the chapel program, we wonder if a chapel might not be expected to pay more attention to the religious tradition of Western civilization.

The main root of our problem of determining what we want on our campus is the suspicion that there is a basic conflict between the program of a liberal arts college and the program of a religious institution. Liberal education seeks to develop open-mindedness; a religious organization seeks commitments to beliefs and modes of behavior. Liberal education began in the Western world as that form of education suitable for the freeman; there was another education for the bondman. Liberal education today continues to be nonvocational and humanistic (in the sense that human beings are of intrinsic value, and that the value of anything is determined by what it does to human beings); but, since the rise of modern democracies, liberal education has taken on the additional responsibility of preparing man for the wise use of his personal freedoms. The education which was once for the freeman is now the education which sets men free. Therefore, liberal arts colleges, as institutions charged with these serious responsibilities, are on constant guard against all forces which would curtail freedom of thought, whether those forces take the form of a socialist state, or economic pressure groups, or narrowly nationalistic organizations, or religious chapels.

Christianity, on the other hand, began as a definite way of life which sprang from specific views as to the nature of the universe and man. It was from the first a missionary religion; by and

large it has been more interested in winning converts than in the clarification of intellectual concepts. The teaching of the church is propaganda rather than impartial learning. The liberal arts educator cannot forget that even Greek philosophy lost its freedom and became the handmaiden of Christianity. That great liberal, Thomas Jefferson, was so suspicious of religion that he refused to establish a chair of religion at the University of Virginia, although he did invite the sects to establish professorships of their own tenets, hoping thus, he said, "by bringing the sects together, and mixing them with the mass of other students, we shall soften their asperities, liberalize and neutralize their prejudices, and make the general religion a religion of peace, reason, and morality." Liberal arts faculties today, I believe, share Jefferson's suspicions, but do not share his optimism about the neutralization of prejudices.

Can an educational institution which wishes to cultivate attitudes of tolerance, freedom, and open-mindedness also support a chapel program which enlists zealous commitments to specific religious doctrines? Are open-mindedness and committals essentially contrary? Some educators have thought so. I cannot agree. Open-mindedness among scientists, artists, or politicians is possible only when the members are devoted to honesty. When one scientist in a laboratory or one statesman on a committee is suspected of dishonesty, his argument and his evidence cannot be unquestionably accepted by the other members. Men cannot remain willing to change their opinions when they cannot trust the honesty of the opposition. The United Nations Organization, unhappily, is an illustration. Freedom to speak does not imply freedom to lie, to defame, to blackmail. The liberal arts college as a part of its program of developing an attitude of open-mindedness in its students must seek to foster intellectual honesty, belief in the ability to solve problems through the rational processes, belief in the essential worth and dignity of man, and belief in the right of each person to live, to think, and to express himself within the broad limits of concern for all.

III

Leaders in higher education are discovering the importance of

attitudes as an educational outcome. They are catching up with the instructors in elementary education in this respect. They now realize that knowledge is a dangerous tool to put in the control of people who are not motivated by humanitarian attitudes. It took a second World War to impress that simple fact upon some academic minds. But while the necessity of developing socially desirable attitudes is generally recognized as a proper goal of higher education, confusion persists as to how attitudes can be developed. We who teach at the college and university level have been guilty of naively assuming that students who study the sciences will absorb the scientific attitude, that the study of world history will instill an attitude of world-mindedness, that logic students will acquire the desire to solve their personal problems by the use of reason, and that students who enroll in liberal arts colleges will develop a liberal spirit. The American Council on Education is now engaged in a Coöperative Study of Evaluation in General Education. Nineteen colleges and universities are examining their programs of general education. The work of the study has been divided among six committees. Four of these committees are concerned with specific subject matter: the sciences, the social studies, the humanities, and communications. The remaining two committees are concerned with over-all outcomes: critical thinking and attitudes. At the two weeks' workshop in 1950 the committee on attitudes ran into the problem of developing a test for an outcome of general education which is agreed to be important, but which is not known to be taught—and which many think cannot be taught.

The average classroom teacher is so engrossed in the business of conveying information that he forgets the necessity of directing attitudes; furthermore, he probably would not know how to develop attitudes effectively if he chose. I confess that in my logic classes I am usually so involved in teaching the rules of logical ways of thinking and in giving my students practice in applying these rules that I neglect to encourage a desire to solve problems by the use of logical reasoning. I am enough of a scientist to hold that if I must choose between nothing but facts and nothing but values, I prefer the former—I am profoundly afraid of attitudes removed from facts. But I am enough of a human being to wish that the choice were unnecessary. I want facts *and* values.

The chapel, I believe, can be of great assistance to liberal education at this point. An intelligent chapel program can develop attitudes which are in keeping with liberal education, and which are an essential part of it. I can think of three types of desirable attitudes which the chapel program can foster:

(1) The chapel can constantly hold before the college community the moral principles necessary for life in a free society and can stimulate an emotional and an active committal to them. The locus of all value in the individual, the common brotherhood of men, the sanctity of human life, the lasting character of good will and the self-destruction of ill will are not only necessary assumptions of actions appropriate in a free society; they are also cornerstones in the Judeo-Christian tradition.

(2) The chapel can cultivate the intellectual commitments essential to open-mindedness. We must rid ourselves of the notion that liberal institutions cannot propagate the attitudes which make liberalism possible. To tolerate everything but intolerance is to tolerate attitudes which will in time destroy tolerance. "Laissez-faire liberalism mistook neutrality for tolerance," writes Karl Mannheim; "yet, neither democratic tolerance nor scientific objectivity means that we should refrain from taking a stand for what we believe to be true" (*Diagnosis of Our Time*, p. 9). Open-mindedness is not empty-mindedness. The expression of a variety of opinions can be tolerated in a society only when those who express opinions are motivated by good will, honesty, a willingness to accept facts, and a desire for truth.

(3) The chapel can cultivate emotional responses to the nonself. A feeling of the mystery of the origin and the nature of life and the interrelatedness of all living beings is essential to the good life for man. This feeling of dependence is the beginning, if not the essence, of religion. Worship services expressing gratitude to the sources of being and sustenance can enrich the emotional experience of the liberal arts student and help overcome the deadening of the imagination which is a defect of American formal education from kindergarten to the graduate school.

If the new chapel program on our campus can develop these attitudes, we who teach in the classroom will welcome it as an integral part of liberal education.

THE THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania—March 28-29, 1952

The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors was held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel on Friday and Saturday, March 28-29, 1952. The meeting was preceded on March 26 by a session of the Association's Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure and on March 27 by sessions of the Council of the Association and was followed on March 30 by a session of the Council of the Association.

The presiding officer of the meeting was Richard H. Shryock, Director of the Institute of Medical History, The Johns Hopkins University, President of the Association.

PROGRAM

Friday, March 28, 1952

9:00-10:00 A. M.—Registration of members and guests.

10:15 A. M.—FIRST SESSION

Words of Welcome and of Freedom, Francis Biddle, former Attorney General of the United States.

The Case for and Prospects of the Extension of Social Security Coverage to Publicly Supported Colleges and Universities, Russell I. Thackrey, Executive Secretary, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities.

2:15 P. M.—SECOND SESSION

The State of the Association—in Special Reference to the Work of the Central Office and the Chapters, Ralph E. Himstead, General Secretary.

Suggestions for the Work of Chapters, Francis J. Tschan, Pennsylvania State College, Chairman, Committee E on Organization and Conduct of Chapters.

The History and Work of:

The Iowa Conference of University Professors, Chesley J. Posey, State University of Iowa.

The Executive Committee of the Chapters of the Association in the Municipal Colleges of New York City, Rosalind Tough, Hunter College.

The Ohio Conference of Chapters of the Association, L. D. Easton, Ohio Wesleyan University.

Questions and Discussion.

7:00 P. M.—THIRD SESSION—ANNUAL DINNER

Toastmaster: Fred B. Millett, Director, Honors College, Wesleyan University.

Address, The Teaching of Intellectual Freedom, Alexander Meiklejohn, Philosopher and Educator at Large.

Address, The Academic Profession in the United States, Richard H. Shryock, Director, Institute of Medical History, The Johns Hopkins University.

Saturday, March 29, 1952

9:30 A. M.—FOURTH SESSION

Practical Ways and Means of Achieving Academic Freedom, John Walton Caughey, Managing Editor, Pacific Historical Review.

Report of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure for 1951, William T. Laprade, Duke University, Chairman.

Recommendations of Committee A and of the Council of the Association Concerning Censured Administrations, Ralph E. Himstead, General Secretary.

2:15 P. M.—FIFTH SESSION

The Responsibilities of Faculties in Relation to Intercollegiate Athletics, Tomlinson Fort, University of Georgia, Chairman, Special Committee of the Association's Council on Intercollegiate Athletics.

Report of the Committee on Resolutions, Ralph F. Fuchs, Indiana University, Chairman.

Proposals from Members and Chapters.

Report of the Results in the Association's Annual Election.

Resolutions

Resolutions on a number of subjects which had received careful consideration by the Council of the Association were presented for action by Ralph F. Fuchs, First Vice-President of the Association, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions. The resolutions adopted by the meeting follow:

Nondisloyalty Oaths, Academic Freedom, and Professional Status

The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors reaffirms the views concerning loyalty oaths, academic freedom, and professional status which were developed by Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure

and the Council of the Association, and endorsed in statements adopted by the Thirty-sixth and the Thirty-seventh Annual Meetings of the Association. The reaffirmation of these views is with a full awareness that, in recent history, State legislation has gone far in imposing nondisloyalty oaths upon teachers in the public schools and in publicly controlled colleges and universities, and that the tendency in legislation is strong to disqualify persons from teaching, as well as from other public employment, because of their past or present organizational affiliations, and that the Supreme Court of the United States has sustained the constitutionality of such legislation. Yet the Supreme Court, although it has affirmed the powers of legislatures to determine factors relevant to the fitness of teachers in publicly controlled educational institutions, has been careful to withhold approval of any action whereby membership in a lawful organization, even when relevant to the question of professional fitness, becomes in itself a ground for disqualification.

None of these developments lends validity to any departure from the principle that, in the interest of the welfare of society, higher education must be free from imposed conformity or bias, to the end that it may continue to discover and impart truth—new truth, as well as old—through untrammeled inquiry and unintimidated utterances. The tests of the fitness of a member of the academic profession should be his professional competence, his integrity and character, and his ability and willingness to engage in vigorous, objective instruction and research; these to be measured by the accepted principles and standards of the profession. A teacher who is guilty of misusing his classes or his other relationships with his students for biased partisan propaganda, or is guilty of a legally defined subversive act, is responsible as an individual for the violation of professional principles or the law of the land, as the case may be, and should be dismissed, provided his guilt is established by evidence adduced in a proceeding in which he is given a full measure of due process. Experience has abundantly demonstrated that neither the organizational affiliations of a teacher, if lawful, nor his social, economic, political or religious opinions, however difficult for others to understand and however distasteful to others they may be, are sufficient evidence of disqualification for work in the academic profession. The acceptance of the contrary view leads logically to nondisloyalty test oaths, and to inquisitions into the beliefs of individuals and into the affairs of colleges and universities, both of which are inimical to the American way of life and our institutions of higher education. Such consequences make clear the importance of the observance of the principle that unprofessional conduct or unlawful acts which might disqualify one for

academic work are personal, and can be dealt with justly only in a proceeding directed to the individual teacher.

The movement to impose ideological tests upon teachers has done, and will continue to do, serious harm to education and to the Nation. As Dr. Oliver C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, has said recently, in commenting on this movement: "The climate of opinion which permits such folly is designed to stifle academic freedom and thus to abrogate one of the great traditions. If regimentation should ever replace real freedom in teaching either through legislation or intimidation, not only would the dynamics of education be lost but one of the chief bulwarks of freedom would be removed."

Loyalty Investigations by Legislative Committees

The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors protests the present tendency, in legislative investigations relating to loyalty, toward using the professional writings, utterances, and normal personal associations of individuals to impugn their loyalty without regard to context of time or circumstances. In this connection we reassert the basic American constitutional principle that the function of the legislative branch of the government is the enactment of legislation and not the prosecution of individuals, that the prosecution of individuals is the function of the law-enforcing agencies of the government. We reassert also the basic American constitutional principle that the proper efforts of the government to protect itself against subversion, as against any other harmful actions, are limited to the enactment of legislation defining and proscribing specific acts as subversive and to the prosecution of individuals who commit legally defined subversive acts, including conspiracy to commit such acts; and does not extend to opinions, utterances, and personal relationships unless these have been legally defined and proscribed as subversive. Legislative investigations which are in fact trials of individuals based on the thoughts and opinions which they may lawfully hold and express, or on their lawful personal associations, discourage freedom of thought, of inquiry, and of expression, and are inimical to the welfare of the Nation. The study of national and international affairs in particular, upon which national policies must ultimately be based, requires freedom of thought, of inquiry, and of expression. The critical nature of our times therefore calls for more, not less, freedom of thought, of inquiry, and of expression. We affirm our belief that only by encouraging these freedoms can we in the long run, if not immediately, achieve wise decisions concerning national and international problems, and we urge that inquiring minds capable of engaging in the study of national and international affairs be officially encouraged.

Concerning Passports for Scholars

Since the search for knowledge and the growth of international understanding are indispensable to the establishment and strengthening of a free and orderly world, American scholars should be unhampered in foreign travel. The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors therefore urges that governmental agencies facilitate the granting of passports to scholars who wish to attend meetings or to teach or carry on research abroad. We also urge the removal of legislative and administrative barriers to the visits of foreign students and scholars to this country.

Censorship of Textbooks

Aware of a widespread and apparently growing tendency toward the censorship of textbooks by individuals and groups outside the profession of education; convinced that in many cases adverse judgments are made on the basis of slight acquaintance with the subject-matter, superficial examination of books, or passages quoted out of context, and that, in some instances, condemnation represents merely the reaction of an individual or group whose interests or prejudices are offended by the treatment of a particular topic; aware, also, that there exist organized groups which are engaged in a systematic attempt to arouse the public against the textbooks which these groups view with disfavor and to force teachers, administrators, and educational boards to adopt books favorable to their views;

Believing that the welfare of our country requires that present and future citizens be given accurate information and well-considered conclusions on all subjects, as determined by competent investigators and thinkers in accordance with tested procedures of science and scholarship; believing that the continuous discovery and evaluation of facts, the continuous reformulation of judgments, and the presentation of the results of these processes, which is the function of education, are hampered by censorship, whether deliberately partisan or merely irresponsible; believing that censorship does the greatest harm at the higher levels of education, which are more directly concerned with the discovery and presentation of new truth; and believing, finally, that the competence and integrity of the academic profession guarantee the prompt discovery, exposure, and displacement of erroneous or biased presentations, with no need for outside assistance;

This, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, expresses its full confidence in the integrity and ability of those professionally responsible for the

selection of textbooks, and in the capacity of the academic profession to correct the occasional abuses or failure of those thus responsible; it condemns irresponsible lay censorship of textbooks, and pressure tactics with reference to the choice of textbooks; and it especially condemns the efforts of organized groups to exert pressure concerning textbooks in order to advance special interests and points of view.

Universal Military Training

Having in mind the objectives of Universal Military Training stated by those who favor it and the objections to Universal Military Training urged by its military and civilian critics, and having before us the carefully considered statement of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government of the American Council on Education dated February 20, 1952, this, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, approves the action of the House of Representatives of the 82nd Congress in committing the proposed new Universal Military Training Program for further study, and opposes the adoption of Universal Military Training at this time as not clearly contributing in any essential way to national security and well-being, and supports instead the continuance, during the period of effort to resolve dangerous international tensions, of the present system of Selective Service. In Selective Service we urge the continuance of appropriate provision for the deferment of qualified students and for their ultimate assignment to the Armed Forces or to other services of the Nation in which the utilization of their ability, education, and training may be of paramount importance as regards national security and well-being.

The Extension of Social Security Coverage to Publicly Controlled Colleges and Universities

In view of present inequalities in the opportunities of academic personnel to obtain Social Security coverage, this, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, urges upon the Congress the amendment of the Social Security Act to provide for the permissive extension of the benefits of Federal old age and survivors insurance to those employed in publicly controlled colleges and universities who, pursuant to provisions of the Act, are excluded from these benefits because of existing plans for retirement in these institutions, on the same basis on which these benefits are available to those employed in publicly

controlled colleges and universities which do not have retirement plans and in privately controlled colleges and universities.

Intercollegiate Athletics

The rôle of intercollegiate athletics in student life and the effect of intercollegiate athletics on student scholarship and conduct are of great importance in higher education. Rightly conducted, intercollegiate athletics should engender respect for good sportsmanship and an appreciation of moral values. On the other hand, ethical cynicism and disrespect for the institution will follow if students believe that the administration and faculty of the institution tacitly condone practices in reference to intercollegiate athletics which are unethical and should be condemned and which by vigorous action the administration and faculty could end. For these reasons, and in the belief that in a properly administered college or university the academic faculty should share the responsibility for every function of the institution which affects the students, this, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of American Association of University Professors, approves the following statement:

1. The governing boards of colleges and universities are urged to study their statutes with a view to increasing the control of academic faculties over intercollegiate athletics, and the faculties are urged to assume their proper responsibilities in this matter.

2. The payment of money or the granting of its equivalent to any student, by any institution, organization or individual, where the primary reason is the participation of the student in intercollegiate athletics is condemned.

3. The General Secretary of the Association is requested to take steps to publicize this statement, with the specific suggestion that he send copies to Chapters of the Association; to the President, the Chairman of the Governing Board, the Secretary of the Alumni Association, and the Editor of the student newspaper, in all institutions in which there are Chapters of the Association; and to the national press associations and important news periodicals.

Concerning Champlain College

Cognizant of the importance of higher education to the welfare of the Nation and, therefore, of maintaining and strengthening established institutions of higher education, this, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, views with disquietude the request of the United States Air Force for the facilities of Champlain College for the purpose of

housing a portion of the military personnel of a bomber base to be established near Plattsburg, New York. Champlain College is an established institution of higher education, in its sixth year of operation, with an enrollment of 862 students, with a faculty and staff of 108, with equipment for educational purposes valued at \$3,000,000 and with buildings and grounds valued at \$12,000,000. Champlain College is an integral part of the State University of New York and represents a significant educational development in New York to provide higher education at relatively low cost for the youth of the State, many of whom could not otherwise attend college—a fact which is recognized by the Trustees of the State University of New York, who have shown no disposition to discontinue the College voluntarily. For these reasons we of this meeting urge that a solution be sought of the problem of housing the military personnel for the bomber base near Plattsburg, New York, which will not require the discontinuance of Champlain College. This we urge with confidence that such a solution can be found if those who seek it do so with full awareness of the values of Champlain College to the Nation, values which would be lost by the discontinuance of the college.

The consideration of these values is urged particularly on the Honorable Thomas E. Dewey, Governor of the State of New York; the Honorable Herbert Lehmann and the Honorable Irving Ives, United States Senators from New York; the Honorable Carl Vinson, Chairman of the Armed Forces Committee of the United States House of Representatives; the Honorable George A. Mahon, Chairman of the Subcommittee on Military Appropriations of the United States House of Representatives, and other public officials who share the responsibility for the establishment of the bomber base near Plattsburg, New York.

In Appreciation

This, the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, expresses deep appreciation and warm thanks to its hosts and friends in Philadelphia for their hospitality and their help in the conduct of the meeting. We of this meeting appreciate especially the hospitality and help of the Reception Committee: Professors Arthur H. Scouten, University of Pennsylvania, Chairman; E. Douglass Burdick, University of Pennsylvania; Launce J. Flemister, Swarthmore College; Agnes K. L. Michels, Bryn Mawr College; Walter C. Michels, Bryn Mawr College; John B. Roberts, Temple University; William Rogers, Jr., Temple University; and Alfred Senn, University of Pennsylvania; and the hospitality and help of the management and the personnel of the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel. The courteous

and efficient work of these groups has expedited our business and enhanced our pleasure.

Association Business

Censured Administrations

The General Secretary of the Association presented recommendations of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure and of the Council of the Association that the Association's censure of the Administration of Adelphi College and of the Administration of the University of Missouri be removed. In support of these recommendations, he presented data concerning conditions of academic freedom and tenure which now obtain at these institutions. Following a discussion of these data it was *voted* that the censure of the Administration of Adelphi College and of the University of Missouri be removed.

The Annual Election

The results in the Annual Election of the Association, which had been conducted by mail ballot as an extension of the Annual Meeting, were presented by the General Secretary at the closing session of the meeting as follows: *President*, Fred B. Millett (English Literature), Wesleyan University; *First Vice-President*, DR Scott, (Economics), University of Missouri; *Second Vice-President*, George W. Martin (Botany), State University of Iowa; *Members of the Council*: Frederick K. Beutel (Law), University of Nebraska; Lewis C. Branscomb (Library Administration), The Ohio State University; Robert B. Brode (Physics), University of California; Robert K. Carr (Political Science), Dartmouth College; Harold L. Clapp (Romance Languages), Grinnell College; J. Erskine Hawkins (Chemistry), University of Florida; Elmer Louis Kayser (History), The George Washington University; Donald E. Miller (Biology), Ball State Teachers College; Rosalind Tough (Sociology), Hunter College; Paul L. Whitely (Psychology), Franklin and Marshall College.

The meeting adjourned at 6:30 P. M. on Saturday, March 29, 1952.

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND TENURE

REPORT OF COMMITTEE A FOR 1951¹

We cannot remind ourselves too often of the underlying faith of our profession. We may share the skepticism implied in the question in the ancient scripture as to whether or not we can by searching find God, but we cannot doubt that the best hope of approaching truth, of arriving at an understanding of ourselves and of the world in which we live rests in unfettered, honest, intelligent inquiry. Using this method, we may confidently expect in the future, as has been the case in the past, that light may be shed on places previously dark and that ways may be opened to desirable achievements now beyond our reach. This is our major mission. If we do not prepare ourselves for it and keep ourselves free to perform it, we betray our trust.

For some years now we have lived in an atmosphere which has increased the normal difficulties in achieving these ends. A danger in our time is that, moved by the fears of attack from without and of confusion at home, we may thoughtlessly divest ourselves of our most dependable weapon of defense, the disposition to keep our minds free and mobile. The burden of insisting that we be thus armed cannot be shifted to other shoulders, though we may hope and even confidently expect that others will support the cause if we do not desert it.

A primary assumption in any consideration of this subject is that the qualifications for scholarship are individual achievements. We have repeatedly urged in our reports that those charged with the responsibility of making appointments of scholars and teachers—two terms which ought never to be divorced as far as the faculties of institutions of higher learning are concerned—even at the stage of apprenticeship should weigh

¹ Presented on March 29, 1952, at the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on March 28-29, 1952.

carefully the qualifications of those whom they engage. We have to assume that those retained after a reasonable period of apprenticeship, or called from other institutions after that stage, have demonstrated qualifications for their appointments. Thereafter, we have an established procedure for ascertaining whether or not such an appointee has by subsequent behavior disqualified himself for his position of trust. Presumably he was appointed and retained because of his achievements as an individual; he should not be dismissed except for justifiable cause ascertained concerning himself personally in the prescribed manner. Adherence to this policy runs little risk of retaining undesirable members of faculties. Departure from it invites abuses not easy to remedy.

II

The experience of the national government in recent years indicates that it is much easier to arouse suspicion concerning the trustworthiness of its employees than it is to abate it, however flimsy the supporting evidence. We are apparently reaching a stage when the circulation of unsupported rumors is sufficient to cause an official to be regarded as a bad "security risk." It is doubtful that the government can long follow this course without depriving the public of the service of some of those best qualified for responsible positions.

As we have noted repeatedly, the preparation of any scholar is a difficult achievement for the individual concerned, involving a long and delicate process and a considerable investment by society. The dismissal of scholars from their posts except in cases where it is clearly justifiable is thus in itself a waste of valuable human material. An even more serious matter, such dismissals are liable to hinder the open-minded functioning of scholars in their fields and thus tend to defeat the returns that society has a right to expect from its investment in scholarship.

It is easy to see how unthinking members of the public may develop suspicions of scholars in general in a time of prevailing, widespread fears. It is not so easy to understand how some in the company of scholars can bring themselves to depart from the

criteria of individual qualifications and individual behavior and to acquiesce in the dismissal of those who have perchance become affiliated with groups popularly discredited.

No one thinks that an individual ought to be recruited as a scholar or teacher who acknowledges unquestioning allegiance to any extraneous authority or dogma or that such an one ought to be retained in his post if inadvertently appointed. These characteristics disqualify an individual for scholarship, but they cannot be long concealed, and the procedure we have agreed upon has hitherto proved sufficient to safeguard the interests of both the individual concerned and the public. Departures from this procedure in an effort to find an easy solution of a difficult problem have damaged the interests of the public even more than they have wronged the individuals involved.

Recent events seem to indicate that these facts can be made clear to an interested public when a few courageous men are ready to place their careers in jeopardy in order to defend the conditions necessary for the performance of the duties of their profession. This is a point to be kept in mind when we are tempted to compromise, to yield a little in an effort to preserve as much as possible of the freedom essential for maximum achievement in scholarship. To yield ground except under the pressure of overwhelming force is seldom the best way to defend a field.

To be sure, we ought to be realistic. No more than other citizens can we ignore the peril of our country and of other values we cherish. We ought to be even readier than others to mobilize our resources against the forces that now threaten us. We have more to lose than others. Many in the past have paid a great price to enable us of this generation to have our measure of freedom to pursue the truth. They frequently had to strive against prevailing ignorance and prejudice, against principalities and powers. Our heritage which they won ought not lightly to be given up. Those who oppose us would have scholars begin with prescribed assumptions in order to arrive at directed conclusions. Only those who by long labor have achieved the freedom to formulate and test whatever hypotheses their wit may suggest can appreciate fully the appalling tyranny of an authoritarian government, which enforces its will even on the minds of

men. No sacrifice would be too great if necessary to avert such a fate.

The most substantial resource we as scholars have to offer in the common cause is this capacity we have achieved and this freedom we cherish. Unless our underlying faith is unsoundly based, if, adhering to our convictions, we devote ourselves to the pursuit of truth and to the implementation of what we find, our society will cohere, our strength will increase, and our cause will ultimately prevail. Therefore, we of the guild of scholars ought to be bold in asserting the imperative necessity that we be left free to contribute our resources to the common store. There need be no fear that agents of a foreign power can infiltrate our ranks sufficiently to do serious damage.

The greater danger is from the well intentioned and fearful among our own political leaders and our own citizens, who, lacking the central faith of scholars, become afraid that truth may not be on our side, and who may therefore seek to limit by oaths or other devices the fields of our speculation and to prescribe the nature of our findings. But we cannot expect the general public to participate in this cardinal doctrine of our faith unless we proclaim it courageously ourselves and habitually stipulate it as an essential condition of fulfilling the functions we are expected by society to serve.

III

If we have seemed in our recent annual reports to dwell too much on these points, it is because new recruits are constantly joining the profession who have to discover for themselves that expertness in itself will not produce the fruits of scholarship without freedom to ask questions and to pursue the answers wherever they may lead. But let us hope that we may now regard this point as established for the moment. In fact, in spite of unfortunate departures from good practice in some places, more institutions have thus far resisted than have yielded to unwholesome public pressure. While the members of the staff in the Washington office have dealt during the past year with a somewhat larger than normal number of cases, as the accompanying

tables indicate, these have arisen largely from the usual types of disagreement between professors and their colleagues and from the natural dislocations involved in the transition from the years of overload caused by the influx of the veterans and the diminished enrollments arising from the draft and from the calling of reservists to duty.

Statistical Tables of Cases for the Seven Calendar Years 1945-1951

CASES*

	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951
Pending January 1.....	74	71	36	47	56	61	68
Revived from former years.....	5	4	6	4	2	2	2
Opened since January 1.....	43	32	39	35	38	40	50
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total dealt with during year....	122	107	81	86	96	103	120
Closed.....	51	71	34	30	35	35	45
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pending at end of year.....	71	36	47	56	61	68	75

DISPOSITION OF CASES*

	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951
Withdrawn by complainant after preliminary investigation.....	10	12	10	7	7	7	5
Rejected after preliminary investigation.....	8	12	10	15	14	12	12
Statement published or planned without visits.....	4	3	4	1	1	1	3
Visit of inquiry made or planned..	33	20	8	5	2	5	5
Adjustment made or being sought..	48	44	32	36	34	38	36
Procedure not yet determined....	19	16	17	22	38	40	59
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....	122	107	81	86	96	103	120

* Each "case" refers to a single controversy. Committee A also deals with a number of situations not classified as "cases"; such situations are not included in these tabulations.

As we suggested in our report last year would be the case, the decline in enrollment in the autumn was by no means as much as had been feared. Unless some unexpected crisis should interrupt what is now as near a normal situation as we are likely to experience in the foreseeable future, we are probably approaching the trough in enrollments due to the decline in the birth rate in

the thirties. Soon the children born in the war years will begin to enter the colleges and universities. Meanwhile, other phases of our problem should be considered if we are to anticipate our difficulties and to gird ourselves to meet them before they are upon us.

IV

In the last two Annual Reports we have called attention to the functions of boards of trustees in the organization of colleges and universities in the United States. It seems likely that in the years ahead their rôle may become even more important. It is encouraging to note recently in California that a board which has made an ill-judged move may have the courage to retrace its steps. It would be far better if members of boards should become so conversant with their responsibilities that they would respond instinctively to their obligations. Perhaps it is in part the fault of members of faculties that they are not so.

There has been an unfortunate tendency among many faculty members to be suspicious of these boards as legal repositories of authority. We have sometimes tended to ask why they should be made rulers over us. This suspicion, in as far as it exists, indicates a failure to appreciate the rôle of the boards when properly exercised.

A college or university faculty is seldom so organized in the United States that it is capable of conducting its own relations with its supporting constituency, whether the latter be a state legislature, a religious denomination, or a body of alumni. There is need of an intermediary group willing to undertake the duty of understanding the needs and operations of the faculty and of interpreting the functions of the faculty to those who must provide the support. In quiet times, when there is a minimum of suspicion abroad in the land and when the financial needs do not constitute too great a burden on the sources of supporting funds, the prestige of the position and the pride in a job well done will usually be sufficient to inspire in members of a board service which the institution needs.

At the present juncture, however, it is necessary in many cases

for the trustees to increase substantially the resources of their institutions to enable them to maintain even their present standards. The needed funds will not be easily found and in many cases not at all from sources upon which the institutions have depended in the past. If necessary new sources of supply are to be discovered and made available, it will be essential that many members of boards of trustees become more active than they have usually been heretofore. In order to enlist the support they seek they will need a more intimate understanding of the service which the institution renders and of the manner in which it functions.

This call for financial support on an unprecedented scale comes at a time when many of the uninitiated are suspicious of what goes on behind academic walls. The demand, for example, for freedom to question and to explore may be interpreted by the unthinking as a stipulation for license to disrupt and to destroy.

If academic freedom is to be defended under these circumstances and financial support is to be found, members of boards of trustees have somehow to be made aware that the money will not serve its purpose unless the freedom be accepted as a matter of course. It is unlikely that others than members of faculties will be able to generate in members of boards of trustees this understanding.

Consequently, scholars and teachers cannot afford at the present juncture to be timid in making known the nature of their calling. It is time to assume a courage if they have it not and to proclaim boldly that it is both necessary to provide them with needed support and to leave them free if society is to derive its due meed of benefit from their labors.

V

But other difficulties already appearing above the horizon make it even more imperative that scholars and teachers as well as members of boards of trustees keep themselves familiar with the major aspects of their responsibilities. Even in a time of need it may sometimes be necessary to look critically at a liberal hand proffering gifts. It would be well if all those interested in higher education would read one of the most stirring books recently

published, Mr. Raymond Fosdick's *The Story of the Rockefeller Foundation*. There is no occasion to review that book here. Its narrative has almost the form of a romance.

A small group of men, using the wealth which Mr. Rockefeller provided, have in a generation effected what amounts to a revolution in some aspects of our society. These men were able to mobilize other men and other funds in a way that has changed the direction of a variety of human activities both in the United States and in other parts of the world. Naturally, the most striking changes have been in the fields of medical and health education. But many other aspects of professional and higher education are vastly different now from what they probably would have been had not Mr. Rockefeller endowed these men and charged them with the mission of promoting "the well-being of mankind throughout the world." We may agree that the men charged with this trust have proceeded carefully, with a keen awareness of their responsibilities, and that no unworthy motives have inspired them. Indeed, it may very well be that other later foundations have been more fruitful because of the trail blazed by Mr. Rockefeller's group.

The point here is that these independent foundations have multiplied since the beginning of the twentieth century, and scholars habitually go to them, hats in hand, for funds. Even though the administrators of most of these trusts be as sensitive to the "Power of Freedom" as one whose noteworthy statement of faith and experience was published in the Autumn, 1951, number of the *Bulletin*, it is nevertheless necessary under the terms of their trusteeship that grants be made for a purpose, whether to institutions or to individuals.

Extensive as they are, however, these foundations may scarcely yet be thought of as constituting a national danger, even though they empower men not directly responsible to the public to change in some degree the direction of social development. Factors needing more careful scrutiny relate to the direct participation of government agencies and larger business enterprises in scientific and scholarly pursuits. In all probability we have to anticipate that higher education will seek increasingly to enlist the support of both government and business. We know that both

government and business already compete with universities and colleges for the services of scholars and scientists. The point here is not to try to halt this tendency. Any effort to do so would probably be futile and might well do more harm than good. We have to learn how to live with what we probably cannot avoid.

VI

But boards of trustees and members of faculties of colleges and universities ought to be careful to safeguard the interests of scholarship, which are public interests, in making contracts with and in accepting support from government and business. Officials of government and business are apt to be primarily concerned with problems of the moment. Colleges and universities are trustees of the future. The questions they seek to answer and the problems they try to solve may not have an immediate or profitable application. There is a possibility that they may be tempted to exchange the hopes of the future for a present mess of pottage. There is a real danger that the officers of government or business may invite them to do so.

Again, members of boards of trustees are likely to be executives or professional men better acquainted with the immediate problems of business and government than with farsighted hopes that ought to inspire scholars and teachers on the staffs of colleges and universities. Experience indicates that institutions depending chiefly upon one or another governmental unit for support are apt to devote much of their effort to the investigation of problems likely to produce results for immediate application. Even though scholars resident at these institutions are well aware, as many of them are, that more fundamental subjects ought not to be neglected if scholarly studies in the future are to be as fruitful as some in the past have been, the larger sums allocated for research by government and business will probably continue to be devoted to a search for needed immediate answers to questions already formulated.

In view of this fact, when we consider the current proposal to have business enterprises allocate a percentage of their income to help maintain the independently managed colleges and univer-

sities, it will be well to pay careful heed to the terms which may condition such allocations. They can, if made, be best explained to stockholders as intended to insure a steady flow of trained personnel and to obtain needed answers to technical and scientific questions. The weight of contracts with the government or with larger industries is already felt on some campuses.

Perhaps officials immediately responsible for the administration of colleges and universities are more keenly aware of the dangers involved in this burgeoning development than are either boards of trustees or members of faculties. But the administrative group acting alone cannot win this fight. The faculties need to make themselves aware of the vital points at issue.

VII

Perhaps enough has been said to make it clear that academic freedom is a concept with many facets. It will profit little to win security of tenure if we are to be obligated to work as a team in tilling the fallow ground likely to produce information immediately useful. It is certainly no disgrace to use our talents to serve our day; perhaps to do so is a part of our duty. But we are also custodians of youth and trustees of the future. Many of the mysteries of the universe are yet unfathomed. We claim freedom to contemplate, to inquire, and to test at will in order that we, heirs of the learning of the past, may transmit to posterity this heritage enriched because it rested for a while in our hands.

For the Committee:
WILLIAM T. LAPRADE, *Chairman*

Duke University

Active Members: Ralph E. Himstead (Law), Association's Secretariat; William T. Laprade (History), Duke University; Ralph H. Lutz (History), Stanford University; J. M. Maguire (Law), Harvard University; Warren C. Middleton (Psychology), Association's Secretariat; George Pope Shannon (English), Association's Secretariat; Richard H. Shryock (History), Johns Hopkins University; Quincy Wright (International Law), University of Chicago.

Associate Members: William E. Britton (Law), University of Illinois; Elliott E. Cheatham (Law), Columbia University; Thomas D. Cope (Physics), University of Pennsylvania; F. S. Deibler (Economics), Northwestern University; F. L. Griffin (Mathematics), Reed College; S. A. Mitchell (Astronomy), University of Virginia; DR Scott (Economics), University of Missouri; John Q. Stewart (Physics), Princeton University.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND TENURE

STATEMENTS OF PRINCIPLES

Editor's Note: In 1915 a Committee on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure of the American Association of University Professors formulated a statement of principles on academic freedom and academic tenure known as the 1915 Declaration of Principles, which was officially endorsed by the Association at its second Annual Meeting held in Washington, D. C., December 31, 1915 and January 1, 1916.

In 1925 the American Council on Education called a conference of representatives of a number of its constituent members, among them the American Association of University Professors, for the purpose of formulating a shorter statement of principles on academic freedom and tenure. The statement formulated at this conference, known as the 1925 Conference Statement on Academic Freedom and Tenure, was endorsed by the Association of American Colleges in 1925 and by the American Association of University Professors in 1926.

In 1929 the American Association of University Professors formulated and endorsed a statement concerning academic resignations.

In 1940, following a series of joint conferences begun in 1934, representatives of the American Association of University Professors and of the Association of American Colleges agreed upon a restatement of the principles set forth in the 1925 Conference Statement. This restatement, known to the profession as the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure, was officially endorsed by the following organizations in the years indicated:

Association of American Colleges.....	1941
American Association of University Professors.....	1941
American Library Association (with adaptations for librarians).....	1946
Association of American Law Schools.....	1946
American Political Science Association.....	1947
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education ¹ ..	1950
Department of Higher Education, National Education Association	1950

¹ Endorsed by predecessor, American Association of Teachers Colleges, in 1941.

1940 Statement of Principles

The purpose of this statement is to promote public understanding and support of academic freedom and tenure and agreement upon procedures to assure them in colleges and universities. Institutions of higher education are conducted for the common good and not to further the interest of either the individual teacher¹ or the institution as a whole. The common good depends upon the free search for truth and its free exposition.

Academic freedom is essential to these purposes and applies to both teaching and research. Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth. Academic freedom in its teaching aspect is fundamental for the protection of the rights of the teacher in teaching and of the student to freedom in learning. It carries with it duties correlative with rights.

Tenure is a means to certain ends; specifically: (1) Freedom of teaching and research and of extramural activities, and (2) A sufficient degree of economic security to make the profession attractive to men and women of ability. Freedom and economic security, hence tenure, are indispensable to the success of an institution in fulfilling its obligations to its students and to society.

Academic Freedom

- (a) The teacher is entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results, subject to the adequate performance of his other academic duties; but research for pecuniary return should be based upon an understanding with the authorities of the institution.
- (b) The teacher is entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing his subject, but he should be careful not to introduce into his teaching controversial matter which has no relation to his subject. Limitations of academic freedom because of religious or other aims of the institution should be clearly stated in writing at the time of the appointment.
- (c) The college or university teacher is a citizen, a member of a

¹ The word "teacher" as used in this document is understood to include the investigator who is attached to an academic institution without teaching duties.

learned profession, and an officer of an educational institution. When he speaks or writes as a citizen, he should be free from institutional censorship or discipline, but his special position in the community imposes special obligations. As a man of learning and an educational officer, he should remember that the public may judge his profession and his institution by his utterances. Hence he should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraint, should show respect for the opinions of others, and should make every effort to indicate that he is not an institutional spokesman.

Academic Tenure

(a) After the expiration of a probationary period teachers or investigators should have permanent or continuous tenure, and their services should be terminated only for adequate cause, except in the case of retirement for age, or under extraordinary circumstances because of financial exigencies.

In the interpretation of this principle it is understood that the following represents acceptable academic practice:

(1) The precise terms and conditions of every appointment should be stated in writing and be in the possession of both institution and teacher before the appointment is consummated.

(2) Beginning with appointment to the rank of full-time instructor or a higher rank, the probationary period should not exceed seven years, including within this period full-time service in all institutions of higher education; but subject to the proviso that when, after a term of probationary service of more than three years in one or more institutions, a teacher is called to another institution it may be agreed in writing that his new appointment is for a probationary period of not more than four years, even though thereby the person's total probationary period in the academic profession is extended beyond the normal maximum of seven years. Notice should be given at least one year prior to the expiration of the probationary period if the teacher is not to be continued in service after the expiration of that period.

(3) During the probationary period a teacher should have the academic freedom that all other members of the faculty have.

(4) Termination for cause of a continuous appointment, or the dismissal for cause of a teacher previous to the expiration of a term appointment, should, if possible, be considered by both a faculty committee and the governing board of the institution. In all cases where the facts are in dispute, the accused teacher should be informed before the hearing in writing of the charges against him and should have the opportunity to be heard in his own defense by all bodies that pass judgment upon his case. He should be permitted to have with him an adviser of his own choosing who may act as counsel. There should be a full stenographic record of the hearing available to the parties concerned. In the hearing of charges of incompetence the testimony should include that of teachers and other scholars, either from his own or from other institutions. Teachers on continuous appointment who are dismissed for reasons not involving moral turpitude should receive their salaries for at least a year from the date of notification of dismissal whether or not they are continued in their duties at the institution.

(5) Termination of a continuous appointment because of financial exigency should be demonstrably *bona fide*.

INTERPRETATIONS

At the conference of representatives of the American Association of University Professors and of the Association of American Colleges on November 7-8, 1940, the following interpretations of the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure were agreed upon:

1. That its operation should not be retroactive.
2. That all tenure claims of teachers appointed prior to the endorsement should be determined in accordance with the principles set forth in the 1925 Conference Statement on Academic Freedom and Tenure.
3. If the administration of a college or university feels that a teacher has not observed the admonitions of Paragraph (c) of the section on *Academic Freedom* and believes that the extramural utterances of the teacher have been such as to raise grave doubts concerning his fitness for his position, it may proceed to file charges under Paragraph (a) (4) of the section on *Academic Tenure*. In pressing such charges the administration should remember that teachers are citizens and should be accorded the freedom of citizens. In such cases the administration must assume full responsibility and the American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges are free to make an investigation.

1925 Conference Statement¹*Academic Freedom*

(a) A university or college may not place any restraint upon the teacher's freedom in investigation, unless restriction upon the amount of time devoted to it becomes necessary in order to prevent undue interference with teaching duties.

(b) A university or college may not impose any limitation upon the teacher's freedom in the exposition of his own subject in the classroom or in addresses and publications outside the college, except in so far as the necessity of adapting instruction to the needs of immature students, or, in the case of institutions of a denominational or partisan character, specific stipulations in advance, fully understood and accepted by both parties, limit the scope and character of instruction.

(c) No teacher may claim as his right the privilege of discussing in his classroom controversial topics outside his own field of study. The teacher is morally bound not to take advantage of his position by introducing into the classroom provocative discussions of irrelevant subjects not within the field of his study.

(d) A university or college should recognize that the teacher in speaking and writing outside of the institution upon subjects beyond the scope of his own field of study is entitled to precisely the same freedom and is subject to the same responsibility as attached to all other citizens. If the extramural utterances of a teacher should be such as to raise grave doubts concerning his fitness for his position, the question should in all cases be submitted to an appropriate committee of the faculty of which he is a member. It should be clearly understood that an institution assumes no responsibility for views expressed by members of its staff; and teachers should, when necessary, take pains to make it clear that they are expressing only their personal opinions.

Academic Tenure

(a) The precise terms and expectations of every appointment

¹ Superseded by the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure; reprinted for its historical value.

should be stated in writing and be in the possession of both college and teacher.

(b) Termination of a temporary or short-term appointment should always be possible at the expiration of the term by the mere act of giving timely notice of the desire to terminate. The decision to terminate should always be taken, however, in conference with the department concerned, and might well be subject to approval by a faculty or council committee or by the faculty or council. It is desirable that the question of appointments for the ensuing year be taken up as early as possible. Notice of the decision to terminate should be given in ample time to allow the teacher an opportunity to secure a new position. The extreme limit for such notice should not be less than three months before the expiration of the academic year. The teacher who proposes to withdraw should also give notice in ample time to enable the institution to make a new appointment.

(c) It is desirable that termination of a permanent or long-term appointment for cause should regularly require action by both a faculty committee and the governing board of the college. Exceptions to this rule may be necessary in cases of gross immorality or treason, when the facts are admitted. In such cases summary dismissal would naturally ensue. In cases where other offenses are charged, and in all cases where the facts are in dispute, the accused teacher should always have the opportunity to face his accusers and to be heard in his own defense by all bodies that pass judgment upon the case. In the trial of charges of professional incompetence the testimony of scholars in the same field, either from his own or from other institutions, should always be taken. Dismissal for reasons other than immorality or treason should not ordinarily take effect in less than a year from the time the decision is reached.

(d) Termination of permanent or long-term appointments because of financial exigencies should be sought only as a last resort, after every effort has been made to meet the need in other ways and to find for the teacher other employment in the institution. Situations which make drastic retrenchment of this sort necessary should preclude expansions of the staff at other points at the same time, except in extraordinary circumstances.

Statement Concerning Resignations, 1929

Any provision in regard to notification of resignation by a college teacher will naturally depend on the conditions of tenure in the institution. If a college asserts and exercises the right to dismiss, promote, or change salary at short notice, or exercises the discretion implied by annual contracts, it must expect that members of its staff will feel under no obligations beyond the legal requirements of their contracts. If, on the other hand, the institution undertakes to comply with the tenure specifications approved by the Association of American Colleges, it would seem appropriate for the members of the staff to act in accordance with the following provision:

1. Notification of resignation by a college teacher ought, in general, to be early enough to obviate serious embarrassment to the institution, the length of time necessarily varying with the circumstances of his particular case.

2. Subject to this general principle it would seem appropriate that a professor or an associate professor should ordinarily give not less than four months' notice and an assistant professor or instructor not less than three months' notice.

3. In regard to offering appointments to men in the service of other institutions, it is believed that an informal inquiry as to whether a teacher would be willing to consider transfer under specified conditions may be made at any time and without previous consultation with his superiors, with the understanding, however, that if a definite offer follows he will not accept it without giving such notice as is indicated in the preceding provisions. He is at liberty to ask his superior officers to reduce, or waive, the notification requirements there specified, but he should be expected to conform to their decision on these points.

4. Violation of these provisions may be brought to the attention of the officers of the Association with the possibility of subsequent publication in particular cases after the facts are duly established.

ACADEMIC RETIREMENT

STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES

Editor's Note: The Statement of Principles on Academic Retirement which follows was developed in connection with a study of Academic Retirement and Related Subjects, which was conducted by a joint Committee of the American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges. This study involved a series of joint conferences of the representatives of these two Associations which began in 1943. The last of these conferences, at which the Statement of Principles was agreed upon, was held in Washington, D. C., March 6, 1950. The Report on the study, entitled "Academic Retirement and Related Subjects," was published in the Spring, 1950 issue of the *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, pp. 97-117. Reprints of this Report are available upon request.

This Statement of Principles was endorsed by the Association of American Colleges in January, 1951, and by the American Association of University Professors in March, 1951.

Institutions of higher education are conducted for the common good and not to further the interest of either the individual teacher or administrator, or the individual institution. The policy of an institution for the retirement of faculty members and its plan for their retirement annuities should be such as to increase the effectiveness of its services as an educational institution. Specifically, this policy and plan should be such as to attract individuals of the highest abilities to educational work, to increase the morale of the faculty, to permit faculty members with singleness of purpose to devote their energies to serving their institution, and to make it possible in a socially acceptable manner to discontinue the services of members of the faculty when their usefulness is undermined by age.

The following is acceptable practice:

1. The retirement policy and annuity plan of an institution should be clearly defined and be well understood by both the faculty and the administration of the institution.
2. The institution should have a fixed and relatively late retirement age, the same for teachers and administrators. Conditions such as longevity, health of the profession, and interest rates have

recently changed in such a way as to justify older rather than younger retirement ages. Under present circumstances the desirable fixed retirement age would appear to be from sixty-seven to seventy, inclusive. Extension of the services of the teacher or administrator beyond the mandatory age of retirement should be authorized only in emergency situations. Circumstances that may seem to justify the involuntary retirement of a teacher or administrator before the fixed retirement age should in all cases be considered by a joint faculty-administration committee of the institution. This committee should preferably be a standing committee, but in the consideration of specific cases no interested person should be permitted to participate in its deliberations. (The above is not meant to indicate that the involuntary return of an administrator to teaching duties need be treated as a retirement.)

3. The institution should provide for a system of retirement annuities. Such a system should:

(a) Be financed by contributions made during the period of active service by both the individual and the institution.

(b) Be participated in by all full-time faculty members who have attained a certain fixed age, not later than 30.

(c) Be planned to provide under normal circumstances for a retirement life annuity of approximately 50% of the average salary over the last 10 years of service, if retirement is at 70, and a somewhat higher percentage if the fixed retirement age is younger. (It is understood that the amount of the available joint life annuity on life of husband and wife would be somewhat less.)

(d) Insure that the full amount of the individual's and institution's contribution, with the accumulations thereon, be vested in the individual, available as a benefit in case of death while in service, and with no forfeiture in case of withdrawal or dismissal from the institution.

(e) Be such that the individual may not withdraw his equity in cash but only in the form of an annuity. (To avoid administrative expense, exception might be made for very small accumulations in an inactive account.) Except when small, death benefits to a widow should be paid in the form of an annuity. Death benefits to other beneficiaries would normally be paid in cash unless provided to the contrary by the individual faculty member.

4. When a new retirement policy or annuity plan is initiated or an old one changed, reasonable provision either by special financial arrangements or by the gradual inauguration of the new plan should be made for those adversely affected.

FULBRIGHT AWARDS FOR 1953-54

University Lecturing—Advanced Research

The Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, Committee on International Exchange of Persons, has announced the 1953-54 competition for awards under Public Law 584 for university lecturing and post-doctoral level research in Europe and the Near East. Included in this competition are awards for Austria, Belgium and Luxembourg, Denmark, Egypt, France, Greece, Iraq, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Turkey, the United Kingdom and Colonial Dependencies. Also announced at this time are awards for 1953-54 in Japan, Pakistan, and the Union of South Africa. Applications must be postmarked no later than October 15, 1952.

Details regarding the specific openings offered in each country are included in a printed announcement which can be obtained from the Committee. Awards for university lecturing or advanced research include round-trip transportation for the grantee, a maintenance allowance including certain provisions for dependents, and a small supplemental allowance for travel, books, and equipment purchasable abroad. Grants are made in the currency of the country to which the grantee is going and are not convertible into dollars.

In addition to the awards listed for the countries named above, a few opportunities remain under programs announced earlier in the year for East Asia and the Pacific for the period extending from May or June, 1953 to March or April, 1954. One or two awards are available in each of the following countries: Burma, Thailand, India, and the Philippines. Burmese institutions have requested visiting professors in Geology, Educational Psychology, and Physical Education for Women. In Thailand opportunities exist in Library Science, the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language, and the Social Sciences. In India specialists have been requested in Educational Psychology and Guidance, Teaching Methods for Secondary Schools, Educational Philosophy, and

School Administration. Some of the fields in which opportunities may develop in the Philippines are: Business Administration, Economics, Chemical Engineering, Agricultural Extension Education, and the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.

Requests for detailed information and application forms should be addressed to the Executive Secretary, Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington, 25, D. C.

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name and Object

1. The name of this Association shall be the American Association of University Professors.
2. Its object shall be to facilitate a more effective cooperation among teachers and investigators in universities and colleges, and in professional schools of similar grade, for the promotion of the interests of higher education and research, and in general to increase the usefulness and advance the standards and ideals of the profession.

Article II—Membership

1. There shall be four classes of membership: Active, Junior, Associate, and Emeritus.
2. Active Members. Any university or college teacher or investigator who holds a position of teaching or research in a university or college in the United States or Canada, or in the discretion of the Council in an American-controlled institution situated abroad, or in a professional school of similar grade, may be nominated for Active membership in the Association.
3. Junior Members. Any person who is, or within the past five years has been, a graduate student may be nominated for Junior membership. Junior Members shall be transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible.
4. Associate Members. Any member who ceases to be eligible for Active or Junior membership because his work has become primarily administrative may be transferred with the approval of the Council to Associate membership.
5. Emeritus Members. Any Active Member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred, at his own request and with the approval of the Council, to Emeritus membership.
6. Associate, Emeritus, and Junior Members shall have the

right of attendance at annual meetings of the Association without the right to vote or hold office.

7. The Council shall have power to construe the foregoing provisions governing eligibility for membership.

Article III—Officers

1. The officers of the Association shall be a President, a First Vice-President, a Second Vice-President, a General Secretary, and a Treasurer.

2. The term of office of the President and the Vice-Presidents shall be two years, that of the elective members of the Council three years, ten elective members retiring annually. The terms of office of the President, the Vice-Presidents, and of the members of the Council shall expire at the close of the last session of the Annual Meeting, or if a meeting of the Council is held after and in connection with the Annual Meeting, at the close of the last session of the Council, or thereafter on the election of successors.

3. The President, the Vice-Presidents, and the elective members of the Council shall be elected at the Annual Meeting by a proportional vote taken in the manner prescribed in Article X. Where there are more than two nominees for any office, the vote for that office shall be taken in accordance with the "single transferable vote" system, *i. e.*, on each ballot the member or delegate casting it shall indicate his preference by the numbers 1, 2, 3, etc., before the names of the nominees for each office; and in case no nominee receives a majority of first choices, the ballots of whichever nominee for a particular office has the smallest number of first choices shall be distributed in accordance with the second choices indicated in each ballot; and thus the distribution of ballots for each office shall proceed until for each office one nominee secures a majority of the votes cast, whereupon such nominee shall be declared elected. The General Secretary and the Treasurer shall be elected by the Council. The Council shall have power to remove the General Secretary or the Treasurer on charges or on one year's notice. The President, Vice-Presidents, and the retiring elective members of the Council shall not be eligible for immediate re-election to their respective offices. In case of a vacancy in the office of

President, the First Vice-President shall succeed to the office. In case of a vacancy in any other office, the Council shall have power to fill it for the remainder of the unexpired term, and, in the case of a Council member, the person so appointed, if the remainder of the term for which he is appointed is not more than two years, shall be eligible for subsequent immediate election for a full term.

Article IV—Election of Members

1. There shall be a Committee on Admission of Members, the number and mode of appointment of which shall be determined by the Council.
2. Nominations for Active and Junior membership may be made to the General Secretary of the Association by any one Active Member of the Association.
3. It shall be the duty of the General Secretary to publish every nomination in the next following issue of the *Bulletin* of the Association, and to transmit it to the Committee on Admission of Members.
4. All persons receiving the affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members of the Committee on Admission of Members shall become members of the Association upon payment of the annual dues. No nomination shall be voted on, however, within thirty days after its publication in the *Bulletin*.

Article V—The Council

1. The President, the Vice-Presidents, and the General Secretary, together with the three latest living ex-Presidents, shall, with thirty elective members, constitute the Council of the Association, in which the responsible management of the Association and the control of its property shall be vested. On recommendation of the Council a former General Secretary of the Association who has held that position for ten years or more may by vote of the Association at the Annual Meeting be elected a life member of the Council. The President shall act as chairman of the Council. It shall have power to accept gifts of funds for endowment or current expenditures of the Association.

2. The Council shall be responsible for carrying out the general purposes of the Association as defined in the Constitution. It shall deal with questions of financial or general policy, with the time, place, and program of the Annual Meeting and of any special meetings of the Association. It shall publish in the *Bulletin* a record of each Council meeting. It shall have authority to delegate specific responsibility to an Executive Committee of not less than six members including the President and the First Vice-President, and to appoint other committees to investigate and report on subjects germane to the purposes of the Association. (See By-Law 9.)

3. Meetings of the Council shall be held in connection with the Annual Meeting of the Association and at least at one other time during each year. The members present at any meeting duly called shall constitute a quorum. The Council may also transact business by letter ballot.

Article VI—By-Laws

By-Laws may be adopted at any Annual Meeting of the Association to become effective at the close of the last session of the Annual Meeting which enacted them.

Article VII—Dues, Termination of Membership

1. The Council of the Association shall have the power to determine the annual dues of the Association for each of the four classes of membership: Active, Junior, Associate, and Emeritus; and shall have power to enact regulations governing the payment of annual dues.¹

¹ The annual dues of the Association and the regulations governing their payment are as follows: Active membership, \$5.00, Junior membership, \$3.00, Associate membership, \$3.00. Emeritus members are exempt from dues payment but do not receive the Association's *Bulletin*; they may, however, receive the Association's *Bulletin* at a special subscription rate of \$1.00 a year. Nonpayment of dues by Active, Junior, and Associate Members for two years terminates membership. At the end of the first year of nonpayment of dues the name of the member concerned is removed from the mailing list of the Association's *Bulletin* and a condition to his reinstatement to membership is payment of dues for that year.

2. For proper cause a member may be suspended, or his membership may be terminated, by a two-thirds vote of the Council at any regular or special meeting; but such member shall be notified of the proposed action, with the reasons therefor, at least four weeks in advance of the meeting and shall be given a hearing if he so requests.

3. A member desiring to terminate his membership may do so by a resignation communicated to the General Secretary.

Article VIII—Periodical

The periodical shall be under the editorial charge of a committee appointed by the Council; copies of it shall be sent to all members.

Article IX—Amendments

1. The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the Active Members present and voting at any Annual Meeting, provided that on the request of one-fifth of these members a proportional vote shall be taken in a manner provided in Article X; and provided further that written notice of any proposed amendment shall be sent to the General Secretary by five Active Members of the Association not later than two months before the Annual Meeting.

2. It shall be the duty of the General Secretary to send a copy of all amendments thus proposed to the members of the Association at least one month before the Annual Meeting.

Article X—Annual Meeting

1. The Association shall meet annually, at such time and place as the Council may select, unless conditions created by war or other national emergency should make the holding of a meeting impossible, or unless the holding of a meeting would, in the opinion of the Council, impede the government in its efforts to cope with conditions created by war or other national emergency.

2. The Active and Junior Members of the Association in each Chapter may elect one or more delegates to the Annual Meeting. At the Annual Meeting all members of the Association shall be entitled to the privileges of the floor, but only Active Members to a

vote. Questions shall ordinarily be determined by majority vote of the Active Members present and voting, but on request of one-fifth of these members a proportional vote shall be taken. When a proportional vote is taken, the accredited delegates from each Chapter shall be entitled to a number of votes equal to the number of Active Members in their respective Chapters, but any other Active Member not included in a Chapter thus represented shall be entitled to an individual vote. In case a Chapter has more than one delegate, the number of votes to which it is entitled shall be equally divided among the accredited delegates present and voting. The manner of voting at a special meeting of the Association shall be the same as for the Annual Meeting.

3. If an Annual Meeting is omitted in accordance with the provision in Section 1, the Council shall transact the general Annual Meeting business and shall conduct the annual election by mail. Such an election shall be by a proportional vote as described in Section 3 of Article III.

Article XI—Chapters

Whenever the Active Members in a given institution number seven or more, they may constitute a Chapter of the Association. Each Chapter shall elect annually a President, a Secretary, and a Treasurer (or Secretary-Treasurer), and such other officers as the Chapter may determine. It shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Chapter to report to the General Secretary of the Association the names of the officers of the Chapter.

By-Laws

1. *Nomination for Office.*—After each Annual Meeting but not later than May 1, the President shall appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, a committee of not less than three members, not officers or other members of the Council, to present nominations for the offices to be filled at the next Annual Meeting. Before submitting his nominations for the Nominating Committee to the Council for approval, the President shall in a Council letter invite suggestions in writing from the members of the Council as to the membership of the Committee. In carrying on its work, the

Committee shall seek advice from members of the Association, and shall, unless otherwise directed by the Council, hold a meeting at Association expense to complete its list of nominees.

For the purpose of securing suggestions for Council nominations, blank forms will be sent out to all members in January, to be returned to the Washington office for tabulation and reference to the Nominating Committee, each form to be filled in with the name of an Active Member connected with an institution located in that one of ten designated geographical districts formed on the basis of approximately equal Active membership in which the member submitting the name resides. After receiving the tabulated list, the Nominating Committee, giving due regard to fields of professional interest, types of institutions, and suggestions received from members, shall prepare a list of twenty nominees for Council membership, two from each of the ten districts, provided that, before the inclusion of the names on the list of nominees, the consent of the nominees is secured.

The ten districts are now as follows:

District I:	Ariz., Calif., Nev., Utah, Hawaii.
District II:	Idaho, Mont., Oreg., Wash., Alaska, British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan.
District III:	Iowa, Minn., N. Dak., S. Dak., Wis., Manitoba.
District IV:	Colo., Kan., Mo., Nebr., Wyo.
District V:	Ark., N. Mex., Okla., Texas.
District VI:	Ill., Ind., Ky., Mich., Ohio.
District VII:	Ala., Fla., Ga., La., Miss., S. C., Tenn., Puerto Rico.
District VIII:	Del., D. C., Md., N. C., Va., W. Va.
District IX:	N. J., N. Y., Pa., Ontario.
District X:	Conn., Maine, Mass., N. H., R. I., Vt., Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia.

Changes in this list may be made by regular By-Law amendment or by Council action.

Nominations made by the Nominating Committee shall be reported to the General Secretary not later than September first. Nominations for members of the Council may also be made by petitions signed by not less than fifty Active Members of the Association resident within the district from which the Council member is to be chosen, provided that in determining the required number of

signatures not more than ten of those signing a nominating petition shall be members of a single chapter. Nominations for the Presidency and the Vice-Presidencies may also be made by petition signed by not less than 150 Active Members of the Association, provided that in determining the required number of signatures not more than 15 of those signing the petition shall be members of a single chapter and not more than 90 shall be members of a single district. No member shall sign more than one petition. Petitions presenting nominees shall be filed in the office of the General Secretary not later than November fifteenth. The names of the persons nominated by the Nominating Committee, together with a brief biography of each nominee, shall be printed in the Autumn number of the *Bulletin*. The names of all nominees, including those nominated by the Nominating Committee, together with a brief biography of each nominee and a statement of the method of his nomination, shall be printed in the Winter number of the *Bulletin*. The General Secretary shall prepare printed official ballots containing the names and brief biographies of all nominees, and in each case a statement of the method of nomination, for use at the Annual Meeting. Should the Annual Meeting be scheduled for October or November instead of for December, the Nominating Committee shall report to the General Secretary not later than May 1 for publication in the Summer and Autumn issues of the *Bulletin* and nominations by petition shall be filed not later than September 15 for publication in the Autumn *Bulletin*.

At the Annual Meeting, the nominations made in accordance with the foregoing procedure shall be voted upon by means of the official ballots, and no other nominations shall be permitted. The vote shall be taken in accordance with the provisions of Article III, Section 3 of the Constitution. The President shall have power to appoint official tellers to count the votes and report the result to the Annual Meeting. After the tellers have made their report they shall file the ballots cast with the General Secretary, who shall keep them in the files of the Association for a period of at least one year. The Council of the Association shall have power to order a recount by a special committee appointed for the purpose whenever in the discretion of the Council such a recount seems advisable because of doubt as to the accuracy of the tellers' canvass of the bal-

lots; and on the basis of such recount the Council shall have power to declare the final result of the voting.

2. *Council Meetings.*--A special meeting of the Council shall be called by the President on the written request of at least eight members of the Council and notice of such meeting shall be mailed to every member two weeks in advance.

3. *Fiscal Year.*--The fiscal year of the Association shall extend from January 1 to December 31 of each year, inclusive.

4. *Chapters.*--The Council may allow the establishment in an institution of more than one Chapter if such action is deemed necessary on account of the geographical separation of different parts of the institution.

A Chapter may invite to its meetings any person it desires who is not eligible for membership, such as administrative officers, those whose work cannot be classified as teaching or research, or members of the Association who are not members of the Chapter. It may establish annual dues of one dollar or less. A Chapter may exclude from Chapter meetings a member who has failed, after suitable notice, to pay lawfully established Chapter dues. If it seems desirable, a Chapter may meet with other chapters and with other local organizations.

Chapters should not as such make recommendations to administrative officers of their institutions on matters of individual appointment, promotion, or dismissal. In local matters which would ordinarily come before the faculties for action, members of Chapters should in general act as members of faculties rather than in the name of the Chapter; but the Chapters as such may make recommendations to the faculty concerned.

5. *General Secretary.*--The General Secretary shall carry on the work of the Association and the Council under the general direction of the President, preparing the business for all meetings and keeping the records thereof. He shall conduct correspondence with the Council, Committees, and Chapters of the Association. He shall collect the membership dues and any other sums due the Association and transfer them to the Treasurer. He shall have charge of the office of the Association and be responsible for its efficient and economical management. He shall be a member of the editorial committee of the official periodical. He may with the approval of

the President delegate any of these duties to an Associate Secretary or Secretaries or Assistant Secretary or Secretaries appointed by the Council for that purpose.

6. *Treasurer*.—The Treasurer shall receive all moneys and deposit the same in the name of the Association. He shall invest any funds not needed for current disbursements, as authorized by the Council or the Executive Committee. He shall pay all bills when approved as provided in By-Law 8. He shall make a report to the Association at the Annual Meeting and such other reports as the Council may direct. He may with the approval of the Council authorize an Assistant Treasurer to act in his stead.

7. *Salaries: Sureties*.—The General Secretary, the Associate or Assistant Secretaries, and the Treasurer shall be paid salaries determined by the Council and shall furnish such sureties as the Council may require.

8. *Payments*.—Bills shall be approved for payment by the General Secretary or in his absence by the President or Vice-President. Every bill of more than \$100 shall require the approval of two of these officers. Any bill not falling within the budget for the year shall require authorization by the Executive Committee.

9. *Executive Committee*.—The Executive Committee shall be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Council. Before submitting his nominations to the Council for approval the President shall give the members of the Council an opportunity to submit in writing their suggestions as to the membership of the Committee. The Executive Committee shall have immediate supervision of the financial management of the Association, employing an auditor annually and making investment of surplus funds, to be reported to the Council. It shall be responsible for approval of the budget prepared by the General Secretary and the Treasurer and for such other matters as may be referred to it by the Council. Meetings of the Committee may be held at the call of the President as its chairman.

**DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP
of the
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY
PROFESSORS**

January 1, 1952

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior Associate</i>
Adams State College	34	1
Adelphi College	91	2
Agnes Scott College	9	
Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College	3	
Air Force Institute of Technology	15	
Air University	14	
Akron, University of	98	2
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College	9	
Alabama College	33	
Alabama Polytechnic Institute	147	
Alabama State Teachers College (Florence)	6	
Alabama State Teachers College (Jacksonville)	32	
Alabama State Teachers College (Livingston)	13	
Alabama State Teachers College (Montgomery)	1	
Alabama State Teachers College (Troy)	16	
Alabama, University of	312	3 7
Alaska, University of	43	
Alberta, University of	4	
Albion College	48	
Albright College	8	
Alfred University	38	
Allegheny College	66	
Alma College	11	
Amarillo College	1	
American College for Girls	1	
American International College	36	
American University	47	
American University of Beirut	3	
Amherst College	69	1
Antioch College	9	
Appalachian State Teachers College	22	

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Arizona State College (Flagstaff)	34	1	
Arizona State College (Tempe)	104		
Arizona, University of	199		3
Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College	2		
Arkansas State College	8		
Arkansas State Teachers College	3		
Arkansas, University of	123		1
Arkansas, University of (Medical School)	20		
Armstrong College	1		
Army Language School	17		
Ashland College	3		
Atlanta University	13		
Atlantic Union College	1		
Augusta, The Junior College of	1		
Augustana College (Ill.)	16		
Augustana College (S. Dak.)	11		
Austin Peay State College	1		
Averett College	1		
 Baker University	6		
Baldwin-Wallace College	68		2
Ball State Teachers College	126		
Barat College	9		
Bard College	32		
Bates College	24		
Baylor University	104		2
Beaver College	3		
Belmont College	1		
Beloit College	49		5
Bennett Junior College	1		
Bennington College	1		1
Berea College	54		
Bethany College (Kans.)	7		
Bethany College (W. Va.)	17		
Bethel College	6		
Bethune-Cookman College	2		
Birmingham Conservatory of Music	1		
Birmington-Southern College	3		
Bishop College	3		
Blackburn College	20		2
Blue Mountain College	1		
Bluefield State College	10		
Boise Junior College	9		
Boston College	52		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Boston University	284	6	4
Bowdoin College	52		
Bowling Green State University	186	18	1
Bradley University	49		
Brandeis University	34	9	
Briarcliff Junior College	7		1
Bridgeport, University of	54		
Brigham Young University	3		
British Columbia, University of	23		
Brooklyn College	212	2	3
Brooklyn, Polytechnic Institute of	33		
Brown University	54		
Brownsville Junior College	1		
Bryn Mawr College	35	1	1
Bucknell University	83		
Buffalo, University of	180	9	4
Butler University	84		2
California Institute of Technology	67		
California State Polytechnic College	13		
California, University of	303	1	3
California, University of (Davis)	9		
California, University of (Los Angeles)	259	3	1
California, University of (San Francisco)	2		
California, University of (Santa Barbara)	58		
Calvin College	3		
Canal Zone Junior College	2		
Capital University	6		
Carbon College	1		
Carleton College	15		
Carnegie Institute of Technology	86		4
Carroll College (Mont.)	1		
Carroll College (Wis.)	18		
Carson-Newman College	4		
Carthage College	16		
Case Institute of Technology	68		1
Catawba College	12		
Catholic University of America	97	1	
Cedar Crest College	19		1
Centenary College of Louisiana	37		
Centenary Junior College	1		
Central College (Iowa)	12		
Central College (Mo.)	5		
Central State College (Ohio)	16		1

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Central State College (Okla.)	5		
Centre College of Kentucky	24		2
Chaffey College	1		
Champlain College	66	1	
Chapman College	18		
Charleston, College of	3		
Chattanooga, University of	44		
Chicago City Junior College (Wilson Branch)	67		
Chicago City Junior College (Wright Branch)	5		
Chicago College of Osteopathy	1		
Chicago Medical College	2		2
Chicago Musical College	1		
Chicago Teachers College	24		
Chicago, University of	277	1	3
Chico State College	14		1
Christian College	1		
Cincinnati Conservatory of Music	2		
Cincinnati, University of	222	1	4
Citadel, The	6		
City College, The	220	1	7
City College, The (Commerce Center)	40	1	
Claremont College	6		
Claremont Men's College	11		1
Clark College	2		
Clark University	48	1	1
Clarkson College of Technology	7		
Clemson Agricultural College	70		1
Coe College	35		1
Coker College	10		1
Colby College	39		1
Colby Junior College for Women	1		
Colgate-Rochester Divinity School	1		
Colgate University	81	1	1
Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College	71	1	
Colorado College	62		1
Colorado School of Mines	16		
Colorado State College of Education	5		
Colorado, Western State College of	28	1	
Colorado, University of	147	2	2
Columbia College	1		
Columbia University	244	7	4
Concord College	38		
Concordia Teachers College	1		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Connecticut College	71	1	2
Connecticut, Teachers College of	27		
Connecticut, University of	161	3	2
Contra Costa Junior College (East)	3		
Contra Costa Junior College (West)	5		
Cooper Union, The	59		
Cornell College	44		
Cornell University	340	17	5
Cottey College		1	1
Creighton University	8	1	1
Crozer Theological Seminary	1	1	1
Culver-Stockton College	11		
 Dakota Wesleyan University	6		
Dalhousie University	2		
Danbury State Teachers College	4		
Dartmouth College	139		1
Davidson College	20		
Davis and Elkins College	6		
Dayton, University of	7		
Delaware State College	3		
Delaware, University of	103		1
Del Mar College	2		
Denison University	71		
Denver, University of	163	9	
De Paul University	131		1
DePauw University	122		2
Des Moines Still College of Osteopathy and Surgery	2		
Detroit, University of	17		
Dickinson College	42		1
Dillard University	1		
Doane College	4		
Dominican College of San Rafael	8		
Drake University	89		1
Drew University	36		
Drexel Institute of Technology	3		
Drury College	14		
Dubuque, University of	22		
Duke University	210	2	2
Dunbarton College of the Holy Cross	1		
Duquesne University	74	2	
 Earlham College	25		
East Carolina College	16		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Eden Theological Seminary	1		
Elmhurst College	16		
Elmira College	18		1
Elon College	1		
Emerson College	2		
Emmanuel Missionary College	1		
Emory and Henry College	1		
Emory University	120	2	
Eureka College	9		
Evansville College	44		2
Everett Junior College	7		
 Fairleigh Dickinson College	18		
Fairmont State College	33		1
Fayetteville State Teachers College	5		
Fenn College	40		
Ferris Institute (College of Pharmacy)	3	1	
Finch Junior College	1		
Findlay College	9		
Fisk University	31	1	1
Flint Junior College	1		
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College	22		
Florida Southern College	15		
Florida State University	216		4
Florida, University of	299	7	4
Fordham University (Bronx Division)	6		
Fordham University (Manhattan Division)	10		2
Fort Hays Kansas State College	55		
Fort Valley State College	2		
Franklin College of Indiana	22		
Franklin and Marshall College	57		
Fresno State College	126		1
Furman University	38		1
 Gannon College	1		1
Garrett Biblical Institute	2		
Geneva College	21		
George Peabody College for Teachers	11	1	
George Pepperdine College	23		
George Washington University	75	2	
George Williams College	2		
Georgetown College	4		
Georgetown University	52	2	
Georgia College, Middle	3		

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<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Georgia College, North	13		
Georgia Institute of Technology	127		2
Georgia State College for Women	9		
Georgia Teachers College	1		
Georgia, University of	115		
Georgia, University of (Atlanta Division)	8		
Gettysburg College	39		1
Gogebic Junior College	1		
Good Counsel College	2		
Goshen College	1		
Goucher College	55		2
Grays Harbor College	1		
Green Mountain Junior College	7		
Greensboro College	8		
Grinnell College	35		1
Grove City College	7		
Guilford College	8		
Gustavus Adolphus College	17		
 Hahnemann Medical College	13		
Hamilton College	39		1
Hamline University	37		
Hampton Institute	15		
Hanover College	7		
Hardin-Simmons University	7		
Harpur College	45		
Harris Teachers College	24		
Hartwick College	15		
Harvard University	160	4	1
Hastings College	2		
Haverford College	36		1
Hawaii, University of	145		1
Heidelberg College	5		
Henderson State Teachers College	3		1
Hendrix College	2		
Hibbing Junior College	2		
Hillsdale College	3		
Hillyer College	27		
Hiram College	11		
Hobart and William Smith Colleges	53	1	1
Hofstra College	70		1
Hollins College	18		1
Holy Cross, College of the	11		
Hood College	46		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Hope College			1
Houston, University of	14	2	1
Howard College	7		1
Howard University	83		1
Humboldt State College	24		
Hunter College	230	1	1
Huntingdon College	2		
Huron College	1		
 Idaho, College of	7		
Idaho Junior College, North	13		
Idaho State College	79		1
Idaho, University of	33		2
Hoff School of Theology	5		
Illinois College	12		1
Illinois College of Optometry, Northern	1		
Illinois Institute of Technology	77		1
Illinois State College, Eastern	90		
Illinois State College, Western	60		1
Illinois State Normal University	195		1
Illinois State Teachers College, Northern	27		2
Illinois University, Southern	162	4	5
Illinois, University of	687	4	2
Illinois, University of (Navy Pier)	151	1	2
Illinois Wesleyan University	40		1
Indiana Central College	14		
Indiana State Teachers College	84		
Indiana University	318	3	3
Institute for Advanced Study	5		
Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	246	20	
Iowa State Teachers College	179	1	
Iowa, State University of	409	5	3
Iowa Wesleyan College	21		
 Jackson College	4		
Jacksonville Junior College	11		
James Millikin University	50		
Jamestown College	2		
Jamestown Community College	8		
Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia	3		
Jersey City Junior College	9		
John Carroll University	41		
Johns Hopkins University	116	1	1
Johnson C. Smith University	1		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Joplin Junior College	24		
Judson College	3		
Juniata College	5		
Kalamazoo College	30		
Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science	122	1	
Kansas State Teachers College (Emporia)	60		
Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)	66		
Kansas, University of	365	2	3
Kansas City College of Osteopathy and Surgery	2		
Kansas City, University of	59	5	
Kent State University	178	2	1
Kentucky State College	9		
Kentucky State College, Eastern	45		
Kentucky State College, Western	1		
Kentucky, University of	228	3	3
Kentucky Wesleyan College	4		
Kenyon College	38	1	
Keuka College	25		1
Keystone Junior College	5		
Kirksville College of Osteopathy and Surgery	16		
Knox College	30		1
Knoxville College	14		
Lafayette College	83		1
LaGrange College	4		
Lake Erie College	14		1
Lake Forest College	51		2
Lamar State College of Technology	8		
Lane College	1		
Langston University	13		
LaSalle College	16		
Laval, University of	1		
Lawrence College	31		1
Lebanon Valley College	17		
Lehigh University	29		2
Lenoir-Rhyne College	4		
Lewis and Clark College	43	1	2
Limestone College	1		
Lincoln Memorial University	12		
Lincoln University (Mo.)	41		
Lincoln University (Pa.)	2		
Lindenwood College	39		
Linfield College	24	1	

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Little Rock Junior College	17		1
Livingstone College	3		
Long Beach State College	5		
Long Island University (Brooklyn College of Pharmacy)	3		
Longwood College	31		
Loretto Heights College	1		
Los Angeles City College	19		
Los Angeles College of Optometry	2		
Los Angeles Junior College, East	1		
Los Angeles State College	42		
Louisiana College	9		
Louisiana College, Southeastern	12		
Louisiana Institute, Southwestern	23		
Louisiana, Northwestern State College of	53		
Louisiana Polytechnic Institute	45		
Louisiana State University	179	1	4
Louisville, University of	132		
Lowell Textile Institute	5		1
Lower Columbia Junior College	9		
Loyola College (Md.)	2		
Loyola University (Ill.)	66	2	3
Loyola University (La.)	8		
Loyola University of Los Angeles	1		
Luther College	3		
Lutheran Theological Seminary (Philadelphia)	1		
Lutheran Theological Southern Seminary	1		
Lycoming College	26		
Lynchburg College	20		
McCormick Theological Seminary	1		
McGill University	6		
MacMurray College for Women	13		
McPherson College	1		
Macalester College	60		1
Madison College	38		
Maine, University of	77	4	1
Manchester College	2		
Manhattan College	16		
Manhattanville College of the Sacred Heart	43		
Manila Central College	1		
Manitoba, University of	57		
Marietta College	26		
Marin Junior College	1		
Marquette University	52	1	

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Marshall College	56	1	1
Mary Baldwin College	5		
Mary Hardin-Baylor College	1		
Marygrove College (N. Y.)	5		
Maryland College, Western	24		
Maryland State Teachers College (Bowie)	1		
Maryland State Teachers College (Frostburg)	9		
Maryland State Teachers College (Salisbury)	2		
Maryland State Teachers College (Towson)	9		
Maryland, University of	286	7	1
Marymount College (N. Y.)	2		
Maryville College	8		
Mason City Junior College	1		
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	47		1
Massachusetts State Teachers College (Fitchburg)	12		
Massachusetts State Teachers College (Framingham)	19		
Massachusetts State Teachers College (North Adams)	8		
Massachusetts State Teachers College (Worcester)	4		
Massachusetts, University of	82		
Medical Evangelists, College of	1		
Meharry Medical College	25		
Memphis State College	67		1
Mercer University	11		1
Mercyhurst College	1		
Meredith College	8		
Meridian Municipal Junior College	1		
Miami University	86		2
Miami, University of	126	2	8
Michigan College of Education, Central	12		2
Michigan College of Education, Northern	51		
Michigan College of Education, Western	61		
Michigan College of Mining and Technology	28		1
Michigan State College	345	1	4
Michigan State Normal College	47	1	
Michigan, University of	363	13	2
Middlebury College	55		
Midwestern University	1		
Miles College	1		
Mills College	49		2
Millsaps College	28		
Milwaukee-Downer College	22		
Miner Teachers College	2		
Minnesota State Teachers College (Bemidji)	18		
Minnesota State Teachers College (Mankato)	41		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Minnesota State Teachers College (Moorhead)	2		1
Minnesota State Teachers College (St. Cloud)	37		1
Minnesota State Teachers College (Winona)	18		
Minnesota, University of	567	4	5
Minnesota, University of (Duluth Branch)	96		1
Misericordia College	1		
Mission House College and Theological Seminary	2		
Mississippi College	2		
Mississippi Southern College	40		
Mississippi State College	127		3
Mississippi State College for Women	17		
Mississippi, University of	67		2
Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy	11		
Missouri State College, Central	30		
Missouri State College, Northwest	45		
Missouri State College, Southeast	39	1	2
Missouri State College, Southwest	51		1
Missouri State Teachers College, Northeast	23		
Missouri, University of	197	1	7
Missouri Valley College	13		
Monmouth College	47		1
Montana College, Northern	7		
Montana College of Education, Eastern	14	1	
Montana College of Education, Western	14		1
Montana School of Mines	4		
Montana State College	30		
Montana State University	107		1
Montgomery Junior College	14		
Monticello College	18		
Montreal University	3		
Moravian College	3		
Morehead State College	7		
Morgan State College	45		
Morningside College	16		
Morton Junior College	5		
Mount Holyoke College	101		2
Mount Mercy College	4		
Mount St. Joseph-on-the-Ohio, College of	1		
Mount St. Mary's College	4		
Mount St. Vincent, College of	2		
Mount Union College	40		1
Muhlenberg College	23		
Multnomah College	10		
Murray State College	4		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Muskingum College	34		
National College of Education	19		1
Nazareth College (Ky.)	1		
Nebraska State Teachers College (Chadron)	4		
Nebraska State Teachers College (Kearney)	27		
Nebraska State Teachers College (Peru)	3		
Nebraska State Teachers College (Wayne)	33		
Nebraska, University of	280	1	5
Nebraska Wesleyan University	11		
Nevada, University of	61	1	1
New Brunswick, University of	1		
New England Conservatory of Music	19	1	
New Hampshire, University of	127	2	2
New Haven State Teachers College	3		
New Jersey State Teachers College (Jersey City)	6		
New Jersey State Teachers College (Montclair)	10		
New Jersey State Teachers College (Newark)	11		
New Jersey State Teachers College (Paterson)	1		
New Jersey State Teachers College (Trenton)	6		
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	120	1	1
New Mexico Highlands University	34		
New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology	11		1
New Mexico Military Institute	5		
New Mexico University, Eastern	46		1
New Mexico, University of	147	2	1
New Mexico Western College	10		
New Orleans Baptist Theological Seminary	1		
New Rochelle, College of	4		
New School	5		
New York City, College of Medicine at	1		
New York Medical College	19		
New York State College for Teachers (Albany)	115		
New York State College for Teachers (Buffalo)	137	1	
New York State Teachers College (Brockport)	28		
New York State Teachers College (Cortland)	65	1	
New York State Teachers College (Fredonia)	65		
New York State Teachers College (Geneseo)	6		
New York State Teachers College (New Paltz)	26		
New York State Teachers College (Oneonta)	5		2
New York State Teachers College (Oswego)	46		1
New York State Teachers College (Plattsburg)	8		
New York State Teachers College (Potsdam)	7		1
New York University	304	7	4

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior Associate</i>
Newark College of Engineering	17	
Newberry College	9	
Niagara University	3	
North Carolina, Agricultural and Technical College of	6	
North Carolina College at Durham	61	
North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering	79	4
North Carolina, University of	160	3
North Carolina, Woman's College of the University of	39	
North Central College	4	
North Dakota Agricultural College	112	1
North Dakota School of Forestry	1	
North Dakota State Teachers College (Minot)	60	
North Dakota State Teachers College (Valley City)	4	
North Dakota, University of	121	
Northeastern State College	2	1
Northeastern University	6	
Northern State Teachers College	14	1
Northwestern State College	33	
Northwestern University	346	3
Norwich University	7	1
Notre Dame College	1	
Notre Dame, University of	117	1
 Oberlin College	89	
Occidental College	34	
Oglethorpe University	4	
Ohio State University	345	6
Ohio University	97	2
Ohio Wesleyan University	70	1
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College	107	2
Oklahoma City University	10	
Oklahoma College for Women	2	
Oklahoma, University of	212	1
Olympic College	22	
Omaha, University of	56	1
Ontario Agricultural College	1	
Oregon Community College, Central	2	
Oregon College of Education	2	
Oregon College of Education, Eastern	30	1
Oregon College of Education, Southern	23	
Oregon State College	189	4
Oregon State System of Higher Education, General Extension Service (Vanport Center)	24	

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<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Oregon, University of	244	1	3
Oregon, University of (Dental and Medical School)	6		
Osteopathic Physicians and Surgeons, College of	2		
Ottawa University (Canada)	1		
Ottawa University (Kansas)	1		
Otterbein College	4		
Ouachita College	2		
 Pace College	29		
Pacific, College of the	10		
Pacific Lutheran College	6		
Pacific Union College	1		
Pacific University	35	1	
Park College	16		
Parsons College	1		
Pasadena College	1		
Pennsylvania College for Women	48		2
Pennsylvania State College	537	8	3
Pennsylvania State College (Swarthmore Center)	17		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Bloomsburg)	6		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (California)	10		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Cheyney)	2		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (East Stroudsburg)	24		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Edinboro)	7		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Indiana)	15		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Kutztown)	8		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Lock Haven)	13		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Mansfield)	1		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Millersville)	38		1
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Shippensburg)	15		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Slippery Rock)	1		
Pennsylvania State Teachers College (West Chester)	12		
Pennsylvania, University of	246	3	3
Pennsylvania, Woman's Medical College of	4		
Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science	3		
Philander Smith College	5		
Philippines, University of the	1		
Phillips University	3		
Phoenix College	47		
Pikeville Junior College	2		
Pine Manor Junior College	1		
Pittsburgh, University of	267	3	3
Plymouth Teachers College	1		1
Pomona College	48		2

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior Associate</i>
Portland, University of	46	
Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College	10	
Pratt Institute	13	1
Princeton University	133	3
Principia, The	10	4
Puerto Rico, Polytechnic Institute	9	
Puerto Rico, University of	51	1
Puget Sound, College of	44	
Purdue University	263	2
Queens College (N. Y.)	122	2
Queens College (N. C.)	23	1
Queen's University	2	
Radcliffe College	3	
Randolph-Macon College	1	
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	46	1
Redlands, University of	61	1
Reed College	30	
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute	37	
Rhode Island College of Pharmacy	1	
Rhode Island, University of	119	3
Rice Institute	27	1
Richmond, University of	12	
Ricks College	1	
Ripon College	19	1
Riverside College	13	1
Roanoke College	5	
Robert College	3	
Rochester, University of	103	1
Rockford College	31	1
Rocky Mountain College	7	
Rollins College	23	
Roosevelt College	80	1
Rosary College	4	
Rose Polytechnic Institute	22	
Russell Sage College	56	1
Rutgers University	235	2
Rutgers University (Newark Colleges)	77	2
Sacramento Junior College	7	
Sacramento State College	17	
St. Ambrose College	4	
St. Bonaventure University	4	

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
St. Catherine, College of	1		
St. Francis College	2		
St. Francis Xavier College for Women	1		
St. John's College	4		
St. John's University (N. Y.)	45		
St. John's University (School of Commerce, N. Y.)	15		
St. John's University (Minn.)	1		
St. Joseph College (Md.)	2		
St. Joseph's College (Conn.)	3		
St. Joseph's College (Ind.)	2	1	
St. Joseph's College (Pa.)	7		
St. Joseph's College for Women	2		
St. Lawrence University	52		2
St. Louis College of Pharmacy and Allied Sciences	1		
St. Louis University	35		
St. Mary's College (Calif.)	32		
St. Mary's College (Ind.)	1		
St. Mary-of-the-Woods College	5		
St. Michael's College	26	1	
St. Norbert College	2		
St. Olaf College	6		
St. Paul's Polytechnic Institute	1	1	
St. Peter's College of Arts and Sciences and Business Administration			
St. Teresa, College of	2		
St. Thomas, College of	59		
St. Vincent College	2		
Salem College	7		
Sam Houston State Teachers College	15	1	
San Angelo College	2		
San Bernardino Valley College	22		
San Diego State College	96	1	
San Francisco, The City College of	75		
San Francisco College for Women	3		
San Francisco State College	98		
San Francisco, University of	3		
San Jose State College	107		
San Mateo Junior College	5		
Santa Clara, University of	2		
Sarah Lawrence College	5		
Savannah State College	7		
Schreiner Institute	1		
Scranton, University of	24		
Scripps College	14		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Seabury-Western Theological Seminary	1		
Seattle University	1		
Seton Hall University	35		
Seton Hill College	12		
Shaw University	1		
Shepherd College	22		
Shorter College	5		
Shurtleff College	14		
Simmons College	58		1
Simpson College	7		
Sioux Falls College	13		
Skidmore College	64		2
Smith College	58		1
South, University of the	31		
South Carolina, Medical College of the State of	5		
South Carolina, University of	94		1
South Dakota School of Mines	2		
South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	75	3	1
South Dakota, University of	82		1
Southeastern State College	11		
Southern California, University of	316	3	2
Southern College of Optometry	2		
Southern Methodist University	105		2
Southern State College	3		
Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College	20		
Southwestern at Memphis	7		
Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary	1		
Southwestern College	12		1
Southwestern Medical Foundation	8		
Southwestern State College	7		
Southwestern University	11		
Spelman College	2		
Springfield College	19		
Spring Hill College	1		
Stanford University	269		5
State Agricultural and Mechanical College (South Carolina)	9		1
Stephen F. Austin State College	26		
Stephens College	56		
Stetson University	20		1
Stevens Institute of Technology	1		2
Stout Institute	31		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Stowe Teachers College	11		
Sullins College	5		
Sul Ross State Teachers College	10		
Superior State College	4		
Susquehanna University	10		
Swarthmore College	57		1
Sweet Briar College	36		2
Syracuse University	365	9	1
Syracuse University (Utica College)	45		
 Talladega College	20		1
Tampa, University of	5		
Tarleton State College	2		
Taylor University	5		
Temple University	207		1
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College	11		
Tennessee Polytechnic Institute	4		
Tennessee State College, East	15		
Tennessee State College, Middle	28		
Tennessee, University of	165		3
Texas, Agricultural and Mechanical College of	174		2
Texas Christian University	20		2
Texas College	1		
Texas College of Arts and Industries	64		2
Texas Southern University	41		
Texas State College, North	122		2
Texas State College, West	4		1
Texas State College for Women	111		1
Texas State Teachers College, East	43		1
Texas State Teachers College, Southwest	17		1
Texas Technological College	93		1
Texas Wesleyan College	4		
Texas, University of	275	3	2
Texas, University of (Texas Western College)	9		
Theological Seminary of the Evangelical and Reformed Church	1		
Thiel College	9		1
Tillotson College	1		
Toledo, University of	98	1	3
Toronto, University of	10	1	
Transylvania College	6		
Trinity College (Conn.)	62		1
Trinity University	53		
Tufts College	99		1

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior Associate</i>
Tulane University of Louisiana	125	2
Tulsa, University of	62	1
Tusculum College	3	
Tuskegee Institute	7	
Union College (Ky.)	18	
Union College and University	81	
Union Theological Seminary	1	
Union University	4	
United States Coast Guard Academy	2	
United States Merchant Marine Academy	43	
United States Military Academy	13	
United States Naval Academy	14	
United States Naval Postgraduate School	43	
Upsala College	69	
Ursinus College	36	
Utah State Agricultural College	74	
Utah State Agricultural College (Cedar City)	24	
Utah, University of	162	
Valdosta State College	19	
Valparaiso University	1	
Vanderbilt University	37	
Vassar College	90	1
Vermont, University of	69	3
Villanova College	55	
Virginia Intermont College	1	
Virginia, Medical College of	29	
Virginia Military Institute	6	
Virginia Polytechnic Institute	62	2
Virginia Polytechnic Institute (Radford College)	13	
Virginia State College	68	1
Virginia Union University	14	
Virginia, University of	97	1 2
Virginia, University of (Mary Washington College)	45	1
Wabash College	23	
Wagner Memorial Lutheran College	8	1
Wake Forest College	26	
Wartburg College	9	
Wartburg Theological Seminary		1
Washburn Municipal University of Topeka	51	1
Washington College	20	1
Washington College of Education, Central	75	2

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Washington College of Education, Eastern	65		
Washington College of Education, Western	30		
Washington and Jefferson College	39		
Washington and Lee University	13		
Washington, State College of	198	3	1
Washington University	93	4	2
Washington, University of	369	1	2
Wayne University	152	3	5
Waynesburg College	3		
Webb Institute of Naval Architecture	3		
Webster College	1		
Wellesley College	105		3
Wells College	28		1
Wenatchee Junior College	1		
Wesleyan College	8		
Wesleyan University	65		
West Liberty State College	16		
West Virginia State College	36		
West Virginia University	147		1
West Virginia Wesleyan College	24		1
Western Carolina Teachers College	3		
Western College for Women	32		
Western Ontario, University of	14		
Western Reserve University	175	2	7
Westminster College (Mo.)	12		
Westminster College (Pa.)	35		
Westminster College (Utah)	3		
Westminster Theological Seminary	1		
Wheaton College (Ill.)	2		
Wheaton College (Mass.)	44		1
Wheelock College	7		
Whitman College	38		
Whittier College	36		
Whitworth College	1		
Wichita, Municipal University o	87		
Wilberforce University	7		
Wilkes College	5		
Willamette University	36		1
William and Mary, College of	66		1
William and Mary, College of (Norfolk Division)	21		
William and Mary, College of (Richmond Professional Institute)	24		
William Jewell College	2		
William Woods College	6		

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Active</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Associate</i>
Williams College	53		1
Wilmington College	3		
Wilson College	15		
Wilson Teachers College	4		
Winston-Salem Teachers College	1		
Winthrop College	40	2	
Wisconsin State College (Eau Claire)	37	1	
Wisconsin State College (LaCrosse)	23		
Wisconsin State College (Milwaukee)	15		
Wisconsin State College (Platteville)	1	1	
Wisconsin State College (River Falls)	46	1	
Wisconsin State College (Stevens Point)	1		
Wisconsin State College (Whitewater)	14		
Wisconsin, University of	391	5	
Wittenberg College	28	1	
Wofford College		1	
Wooster, College of	21		
Worcester Polytechnic Institute	9		
Wyoming, University of	92	3	
Xavier University (La.)	8		
Xavier University (Ohio)	4		
Yakima Valley Junior College	11		
Yale University	122	2	1
Yankton College	36		
Yeshiva University	20		
Youngstown College	7		

Record of Membership for 1951

Membership, January 1, 1951.....	40,626
Deaths.....	240
Resignations and Suspensions.....	1,251
Memberships Lapsed.....	<u>1,695</u>
	<u>- 3,186</u>
	<u>37,440</u>
Reinforcements.....	342
Elections:	
Active.....	4,350
Junior.....	<u>131</u>
	<u>4,481</u>
	<u>4,823</u>
Total January 1, 1952.....	42,263
Members in 928 Institutions:	
Active.....	39,190
Junior.....	<u>339</u>
	<u>39,529</u>
Other Active Members.....	2,048
Other Junior Members.....	145
Associate Members.....	503
Honorary Members.....	<u>38</u>
Total January 1, 1952.....	42,263

Besides Active and Junior Members connected with accredited colleges and universities, this statement includes: (1) Other Active Members: those connected with the research foundations or engaged in occupations closely related to teaching or investigation, those whose teaching or research is temporarily interrupted or who are at institutions not on the accredited list, also any whose addresses are unknown; (2) Other Junior Members; (3) Associate Members: members who ceasing to be eligible for Active or Junior membership because their work has become primarily administrative are transferred with the approval of the Council to Associate membership; (4) Honorary Members: this membership was discontinued in 1933.

MEMBERSHIP

CLASSES AND CONDITIONS—NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

Active. A person is eligible for election to Active membership if he holds a position of teaching and/or research, with the rank of instructor or its equivalent or higher, in an institution on the Association's eligible list, provided his work consists of at least half-time teaching and/or research. Annual dues are \$5.00.

Junior. Junior membership is open to persons who are, or within the past five years have been, graduate students in eligible institutions and who are not eligible for Active membership. Junior Members are transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible. Annual dues are \$3.00.

Associate. Associate membership is not an elective membership. Active and Junior Members whose work becomes primarily

administrative are transferred to Associate membership. Annual dues are \$3.00.

Emeritus. Any member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred to Emeritus membership. Emeritus Members are exempt from dues. They may continue to receive the *Bulletin* at a special rate of \$1.00 a year.

Continuing Eligibility. Change of occupation or transfer to an institution not on the Association's eligible list does not affect eligibility for continuance of membership.

Interruption or Termination of Membership. Interruption or termination of membership requires notification to the Association's Washington office. In the absence of such notice, membership continues with receipt of the *Bulletin* for one calendar year, during which time there is an obligation to pay dues.

Nominations for Membership

The following 1658 nominations for Active membership and 38 nominations for Junior membership are published as provided in the Constitution of the Association. Protests of nominations may be addressed to the General Secretary of the Association who will, in turn, transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee on Admission of Members questions concerning the technical eligibility of nominees for membership as provided in the Constitution of the Association. To be considered, such protests must be filed with the General Secretary within thirty days after this publication.

Active

Adams State College, James R. Groves; Adelphi College, Sheldon M. Atlas, Richard F. Clemo, Joseph I. Foster, Rosalind Gordon, John J. Nelson, Jr.; Air University, William F. Freeman; University of Akron, Neal Balanoff, Russell J. Beichly, Mo Chih Li, Fred S. Sefton, Thomas Sumner, John H. Ziegler; Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, George H. Hobson; Alabama College, Martha Allen, Putnam Porter; Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Don F. Driggs, Paul Irvine, John W. Kennedy, Benjamin E. Mitchell, Herbert H. Mitchell, John C. Mullen, Ethel D. Tatum; Alabama State Teachers College (Florence), Bernarr Cresap, Dow H. Darden, Jr., William A. Philp; Alabama State Teachers College (Jacksonville), Howard O. Prichard;

Alabama State Teachers College (Montgomery), Robert C. Hatch; **University of Alabama**, Billy Dabbs, Edgar L. Gray, Leroy Langley, Douglass Olsen, Florence E. Petzel, Rosalynn Rice; **University of Alaska**, Arthur S. Buswell, Mattie L. Clay; **University of Alberta**, Orest Starchuk; **Albright College**, Harry W. Mengel, Paul Rusby, Elmer L. Smith; **Alfred University**, Kevin P. Bunnell, Franklin C. Daiber, C. Jay McWilliams, Winfield L. F. Randolph, Robert G. Sutton; **Allegheny College**, Emily B. Higgins, Alton D. Kidd; **American University**, Gladys Jorgenson, Leo Schubert, Zoe Wythe; **Appalachian State Teachers College**, Walton S. Cole, Roger E. Thomas; **Arizona State College (Flagstaff)**, Ida B. McGill; **University of Arizona**, Robert B. Chiasson; **Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College**, H. Kenton Moore, J. D. Moore; **University of Arkansas**, E. Ralph Dusek, Walter J. Richards, E. Philip Trapp; **University of Arkansas (School of Medicine)**, Edmond F. Erwin; **Army Language School**, Bela H. Banathy, Waclaw Bevensee, Steve Boljanich, Claude D. Carlucci, Kwei-Sen Chen, Gerard P. Cleisz, Ino Colmenares, George Curti, Dragoslav R. Djordjevic, V. Andre Drignakovitch, Magda Fonay, Albert S. Gau, Mira Gavrilovich, Michael Giansiracusa, Constantine Grigorovich-Barsky, Tadeusz L. Haska, Kenneth D. Howe, Dusan A. Jankovic, Boris Jordan, Antoni S. Koper, Janusz T. Lacki, Charles Y. Lee, Richard C. Lewanski, Magoroh Maruyama, Mariano I. Montana, Elemer J. Nagy, G. Alexander Nowak, Julius S. Nyikos, Henry D. Paroutaud, Maciej Radziwill, Dragisha N. Ristic, Kamil T. Said, Jacob Y. Shammas, Franco Varese, Veronika Vetroff, I. Hilmi Voskay, Miodrag M. Voukovitch, Anna L. Warga, Raymond S. Yun, Edward T. Zoma; **Art Institute of Chicago**, Maurice Gnesin.

Bard College, George H. Cleaver, Robert J. Koblitz, Howard P. Smith; **Bates College**, Douglas E. Leach; **Baylor University**, Mary E. Proudfit, Ralph L. W. Schmidt; **Beloit College**, Melville R. Spence, William M. Taylor; **Bethel College**, Arnold M. Wedel; **Boston University**, Mary A. Donnelly, David S. Scarrow, Lorraine Tolman; **Bowdoin College**, Dan E. Christie, Nathan Dane II; **Bowling Green State University**, John C. Wretschko; **Bradley University**, Carl F. Andry, Samuel G. Sadler; **Brandeis University**, Lewis A. Coser, Rudolf Kayser, Leonard W. Levy, Herbert H. Rowen; **University of Bridgeport**, William H. Protheroe; **Brooklyn College**, Alfred A. Beltran Antoinette Cioli, Hazel Frost, Paul Glass, Abraham S. Goodhart, Alberta H. Henry, Jerome Himelhoch, Homer Jacobson, Mordecai Kosover, Charles R. Lawrence, Ray Margaret Lawrence, Lucile S. Lee, James P. Meagher, Charles L. Ozer, William T. Perry, Charles Rothe, Gordon A. Rowell, Margaret K. Rowell, Rose Z. Sellers, Anna R. Zollinger; **Brown University**, Jack Ruina; **University of Buffalo**, Harold C. Frantzen, Arthur Lenhoff; **Butler University**, William Pelz, James Woodress.

California Institute of Technology, Carl G. Niemann, James A. Nobel, William H. Pickering, Alan R. Sweezy; **University of California**, Fernando Alegria, William A. Gross, Paul B. Stewart, Francis Violich; **University of California (Davis)**, Arnold Brekke; **University of California (Los Angeles)**, John W. Miles; **Carthage College**, Robert B. Clark, Loel D. Frederickson;

Catawba College, Florence A. Wehr; Catholic University of America, C. Warren Bogan, Paul J. Claffey, Celeste F. Fink, Herbert Manuccia, Robert P. Mohan, Marjorie Murphy, James P. O'Connor, Robert P. Odenwald, Dorothea F. Sullivan, Antonine S. Tibesar; Central College (Iowa), Walter D. DeKock; Central College (Missouri), Walter H. Brown, Mary L. Cameron, Arthur J. Cullen, Mabel E. Ellis, Merrill E. Gaddis, Floyd F. Helton, C. Eugene Hix, Jr., Eulalie Pape, Catherine S. Strickler, Harold C. Svanoe, Marie C. Vilhauer, Helen N. Wheeler; Chapman College, Guy M. Davis, Jr.; College of Charleston, Richard B. Simons; Chicago Teachers College, Ellsworth Faris, Jr., John Pfau; University of Chicago, Edwin S. Munger, Richard R. Willey; University of Cincinnati, George W. Kisker; The City College, Abraham S. Halkin, Kurt E. Lowe, Aaron Noland, Stanley Page, Ming Lung Pei; The City College (Commerce Center), Huxley Madeheim; Clemson Agricultural College, Robert Z. Vause, Jr., David H. Witt; Coe College, Keith Broman, Charles F. Elias, George Fischer, R. H. Scherer; Colgate University, William N. Miller, Huntington Terrell; Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College, Ivan Madsen, Roy C. Nelson; Western State College of Colorado, William E. Dorgan; University of Colorado, James P. Dee, Howard Higman, Richard Jessor, Raymond R. Lanier, Jiri Nehnevajsa, Robert D. Thornton; Columbia University, David Austin, Herbert A. Deane, Hilda M. Grieder, Mirra Komarovsky, E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., Ernest J. Simmons; Concord College, Joseph Bachrach, Woodrow W. Creason; Connecticut College, Zosia Jacynowicz, W. Duane Lockard, Madeline R. Somers; Teachers College of Connecticut, R. Vincent Cash; University of Connecticut, Gene Barbaret, Jane S. Becker, Warren J. Bilkey, Elizabeth A. Bogert, Karl A. Bosworth, Ronald S. Brand, George K. Brinegar, John M. Brinnin, Robert G. Burnight, James R. Carson, Josephine A. Dolan, H. Lincoln Easterbrooks, Fred I. Elliott, Nicholas W. Fenney, Stephen S. Friedland, Ada Goldberg, Jacob K. Goldhaber, Mary L. Greenwood, Roy J. Guyer, Harold G. Halcrow, Allan H. Hammar, Urbane O. Hennen, D. Robert Ingalls, Paul J. Jancke, Walter Kaess, John W. Karnes, Jr., Egon F. Kenton, Harold Kidder, Allan V. King, Viola Kleindienst, Sidney Korando, Harriet J. Kupferer, Robert J. Leslie, Charles B. Lombardo, Robert W. Lougee, Elmer Luchterhand, Roy Luginbuhl, Alan L. McClelland, Edward H. Madden, Hans A. Maier, Emanuel Margolis, W. Howard Martin, Lloyd D. Matteson, Grover E. Maxwell, Robert G. Mead, Jr., Aron L. Mirsky, Max E. Morgan, Lawrence L. Parrish, George S. Paul, Dorothy F. Roberts, Benjamin Roth, Francis A. Ryan, Francis E. Ryan, Peter B. Schroeder, Victor Scottron, Fritz Semmler, Edwin P. Singsen, Roland Stahl, Richard M. Story, Jr., Robert L. Stutz, Ann Synnestvedt, Frances M. Tappan, Richard K. Thoms, H. John Thorkelson, Peter R. Toscano, Owen S. Trask, John L. Traugott, Philip N. Treggor, George Van Bibber, Walter I. Wardwell, Walter R. Williams, Frank L. Woods, Henry Zatzkis; The Cooper Union, Benjamin J. Luberoff, Robert J. Spinna, Leon J. Taub, Matthew E. Zaret; Cornell University, Stuart M. Barnette, Esther C. Bratton, Dayton N. Dennett, Charles F. Hockett; Creighton University, Eugene W. Rice.

Dartmouth College, Laurence I. Radway; **Davidson College**, George W. Crawford, Kenneth R. Moore, Charles E. Ratliff, Jr.; **University of Dayton**, Sylvester L. Eveslage; **University of Delaware**, Ernest S. Barratt; **University of Denver**, Caroline H. Elledge, Thomas M. Griffiths, Warner L. Lowe; **De Paul University**, Thomas W. Connolly, Paul L. Hughes, Donald G. Sherry; **DePauw University**, J. Clees McKray, Howard F. Sidman; **Dominican College of San Rafael**, Dorothy S. Blackmore, Freda Mimran, Ann O'Hanlon, Catherine D. Rau, Barbara Stafford; **Drake University**, Edward K. West; **University of Dubuque**, Charles W. Tyrrell; **Duke University**, Van L. Kenyon, Jr.; **Duquesne University**, Michael J. Faidel, Vartkes H. Simonian.

Earlham College, Ansel M. Gooding; **Emerson College**, John W. Davis; **Emory University**, George F. Brasington, Jr., Jerry W. Combs, Jr., Roy W. Curry, Robert B. McKay, Walter A. Mickle, James Z. Rabun, Robert H. Rohrer.

Fairleigh Dickinson College, Lawrence S. Greenberg, Albert J. Monack; **Fairmont State College**, Robert G. Layer; **Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College**, Neville H. Clarke, Theodore B. Cooper; **Florida State University**, Howard H. Barnett, Marian W. Black, Charles M. Bowen, Jr., Marshall R. Colberg, Paul Edmonston, William T. Edwards, Richard E. Gross, Russell H. Johnsen, Dixie B. Jones, John E. Leffler, Mary C. Lester, Edmund D. Lewandowski, Nelson Marshall, George B. Martin-Vegue, James B. Morris, William M. Muth, Lyman C. Peck, Thomas B. Phinizy, Howard Smoyer, Harry M. Walborsky, Odelia M. Williams; **University of Florida**, Roger Q. Bault, Douglas Duke, Charles L. Durrance, Jr., Martin E. Hamner, Ross Y. Koen, Karl Krastin, William F. Larsen, Lyle N. McAlister, John T. McCall, Hubert Marshall, John H. Moorman, Leonidas H. Roberts, Vincent J. Senn, W. Herbert Yoho; **Fordham University**, (Manhattan Division) James J. Flynn; **Fort Valley State College**, Wilbur S. Clarke; **Franklin and Marshall College**, J. William Frey, Hugh A. Gault; **Fresno State College**, Nathan W. Cohen, Edith Lindly, Richard J. Whiting; **Furman University**, Charles E. Blackwood, H. Jack Flanders, Jr., C. Eugene Looper, Albert N. Sanders.

George Peabody College for Teachers, A. Stan Rescoe; **George Pepperdine College**, Frances J. Easley, Patricia C. Simmons; **George Washington University**, Ingolf H. E. Otto; **Georgetown University**, Roland N. Harman, Charles K. Levy, Elizabeth Roboz, Guy C. Sheatz; **Georgia Institute of Technology**, Grant G. Genung; **Georgia State College for Women**, Joseph F. Specht; **University of Georgia**, Byron Callaway; **Gettysburg College**, Edgar L. Eddins, Charles H. Glatfelter, Charles A. Raith; **Grove City College**, Roger C. Dawes; **Gustavus Adolphus College**, Ove S. Olson.

Hanover College, Paul B. Keach, J. Dan Webster; **Harpur College**, Harold T. Fagin; **Harris Teachers College**, A. Samuel Oliveri, Ruth E. Schofield, Mary York; **Hartwick College**, Louis Van Ess; **Harvard University**, Thomas J. Cicchino, Richard E. Pipes; **University of Hawaii**, Jacob Adler, Joseph E. Alicata, Dorothy B. Aspinwall, Marjorie B. Barkley, John H. Beaumont, Donald W. Bell, Henry A. Bess, Otto J. Beyers, Charles M. Bice, Earl M.

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James Millikin University, Elton E. Burgstahler, Wesley H. Snyder, Ruth B. Thomas; **Jamestown Community College**, Richard J. Barth, Peter C. Brase, Jr.; **John Carroll University**, Bernard R. Campbell; **Johns Hopkins University**, David H. Fax, Paul Harper, Paul A. Lembecke.

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Lafayette College, Robert A. Battis, Alexander C. Blair, Richard V. Hamory, Arthur Montgomery; **LaGrange College**, Joseph L. Kovar; **Lake Forest College**, Russell W. Colgin, Gareth Dunleavy, Cornelius Loew, W. Gordon Milne; **Lamar State College of Technology**, Crystal Canon; **Lehigh University**, Joseph A. Maurer, Robert B. Norris, Ralph N. Van Arnam; **Lewis and Clark College**, Donald G. Balmer, Walter J. Mead, Corinne Pouteau, Eugene B. Ross, Agnes Swanson; **Lincoln University (Missouri)**, Beulah W. Allen, Bernice S. Edmonds, Christine H. Franklin; **Lindenwood College**, Breman Van

Bibber; **Longwood College**, C. L. S. Earley, Clarence R. Warrington, Jr.; **Los Angeles State College**, Lorentz I. Hansen, Leonard Mathy; **Louisiana College**, Lula Smith, John S. Wilson; **Southeastern Louisiana College**, Alton E. Wilder, Jr.; **Louisiana Polytechnic Institute**, Walter J. Harman; **Louisiana State University**, Mima Babington, Stanley Bashkin, Graham B. Bell, George W. Cooper, M. Ray Loree, Joseph M. Reynolds; **Lowell Textile Institute**, John R. Robertson; **Loyola College**, William D. Hoyt, Jr.; **Loyola University (Illinois)**, Patrick J. Casey, Marguerite H. Cuddy, S. M. Frizol, Hylda A. Harp, Ernest I. Proulx, John M. Woziak; **Lycoming College**, W. Arthur Faus, Helen Felix, Samuel J. Good, Walter S. McIver, James W. Sheaffer, John A. Streeter, Robert C. Vickers, Michael M. Wargo; **Lynchburg College**, Merton J. Strong, Jr.

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Junior

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Baker, Evelyn P. Williamson; **South Dakota State College**, Arthur E. Dracy, Clark T. Eidsmoe, Jim Emmerich, Dennis L. Moe, Howard M. Sauer, Fred E. Shubbeck; **University of South Dakota**, Charles D. Cox, Roger T. Davis, Helen Harrison, Louis F. Michalek, Richard B. O'Connell, Donald G. Pollock, Robert S. Sullivant; **Southern Methodist University**, Bernetta Jackson, John D. Kirby; **Southern State College**, Darrell C. Terrell; **Southwestern College**, Lucille Haney, Eleanor Hoag, Holmes Wilhelm; **Stanford University**, Donald P. Abbott, Victor M. Arnautoff, David L. Bassett, Henry Blauth, H. Lloyd Churchill, Richard H. Eastman, Edward M. Farmer, Helen C. Farnsworth, Richard W. Gable, Paul R. Garabedian, Arthur C. Giese, Joseph J. Graham, A. Clark Griffin, Arthur D. Howard, John J. Johnson, Sarra Kliachko, George H. Knoles, Konrad B. Krauskopf, Douglas H. Lawrence, Carl G. Lindquist, Hubert S. Loring, Daniel C. McCluney, Jr., John C. C. McKinsey, James M. McNelis, John C. Manning, Alexander Miller, John C. Miller, Malcolm R. Miller, Phil C. Neal, Virginia Opsvig, Robert M. Page, Charles F. Park, Jr., R. R. Paxton, David D. Perkins, Leonard G. Ratner, Melvin W. Reder, Halsey L. Royden, Herman Rubin, Carl T. Running, Harold C. Schmidt, Tibor Scitovsky, Harold Shepherd, Leo Simons, Thomas C. Smith, Rixford K. Snyder, Frederic Spiegelberg, Paul E. Stewart, Donald L. Stilwell, Jr., James H. Stone, Wilfred H. Stone, C. Melvin Swinney, Lorie Tarshis, Donald W. Taylor, Frederic W. Terrien, Victor K. Thompson, Robert S. Turner, Victor C. Twitty, V. L. VanderHoof, Paul Wallin, Raymond K. Waters, James J. Watkins IV, Mary A. Williams, John H. Wise, Arthur F. Wright, Mary C Wright; **Sweet Briar College**, Sidney L. Freeman, Frank H. McGar, Jr.

Talladega College, Jametta W. Minnis; **Temple University**, Emily M. F. Cooper, J. Stephen Lewis, David L. Stone, Eugene Udell; **East Tennessee State College**, Franklin D. Laurens, Emmett F. Sawyer; **University of Tennessee**, John D. Trimmer, Marshall R. Warren; **Texas Christian University**, Landon A. Colquitt; **Texas College of Arts and Industries**, Joe E. Brown, Hugh T. Croley, Harry B. Sanders, Jesse W. Tarwater; **Texas State College for Women**, John A. Balog, Lawrence A. Hanley, L. Irene Hollis, Robert E. Jackson, Elizabeth Keesee, Helen A. Ludeman, Harlan Pettit, Martha H. Thurmond, Kathleen Varner; **Texas Technological College**, Harrison J. Cameron, Jr., A. Hunter Dupree, Richard Duran, Herman Glaser, Jonnie McC. Michie, Richard K. Tracy; **University of Texas**, William R. Braisted, Joe B. Frantz, Lewis Hanke, Murray E. Polakoff, Harold A. Shapiro, Gene Spencer, Jerre S. Williams; **Trinity College (Connecticut)**, John A. Dando, Hans F. Frese, Walter J. Klimczak, Albert Merriman, Richard K. Morris; **Tulane University of Louisiana**, Robert C. Stone, Theodore F. Treuting, Aram Vartanian.

Union College (Kentucky), William T. Bolyard, Jr., Erwin S. Bradley, Dean Cadle, Aldis B. Easterling, Marjorie D. Easterly, Rupert B. Hurley, Mary C. Kennedy, Ervilla A. Masters, Rena Milliken, Kathleen Moore, Phillip I. Peters, Charles W. Simms, James S. Steck, Kathryn Van D. Sutphen, Horace R. Weaver; **Union College (New York)**, Neal W. Allen, Jr., Robert B. Fulton, Karl M. Schmidt, Jr., Marvin B. Sussman; **United States Merchant Marine**

Academy, Moses W. Hirschkowitz, Leon B. Kane; Upsala College, Rolf Edholm; Utah State Agricultural College, Merrill H. Gunnell, J. Lynn Mortensen, Harris O. Van Orden; Utah State Agricultural College (Cedar City), Wallace B. Adams, Fred L. Graber, Roy L. Halversen, Blaine H. Johnson, Ann L. Lamb, George L. LeBaron, Raymond A. Maloney, Darrell H. Matthews, William J. Nash, David L. Sargent, Anthony W. Stephenson; University of Utah, Roscoe B. Anderson, Douglas L. Baker, Elfriede F. Brown, Mary D. Brown, Max L. Carruth, Paul B. Carter, Morris M. Christensen, Opal Christensen, Caroline Dobson, Ray L. Doran, John C. Downey, Frederick R. Evans, Rita E. Hagerman, L. Dale Harris, Ruth Kuhlman, George Lefevre, Jr., Walter S. Loewe, Stanley Marcus, Paul S. Nicholes, Lewis T. Nielsen, Edwin C. Nordquist, Stephen Prager, Jesse W. Reeder, Wanda Robertson, Allien R. Russon, Earl W. Smart, Max L. Sweat, John F. Van Pilsum, Mac E. Van Valkenburg, John P. Vloyantes, Ellsworth E. Weaver.

University of Vermont, Constance L. Brown, Fred W. Dunihue; Villanova College, Lester N. Recktenwald, Anthony J. Summo; Virginia State College, Aubrey S. Escoffery, Mary T. Henderson, Harry A. Johnson, Charles W. Phillips, Charles A. Taylor, Roy A. Woods.

Wabash College, Kurt Sulger; Washburn Municipal University of Topeka, David A. Sperry; Washington College, Edmund Berkeley, Conrad K. Rizer; Central Washington College of Education, Helen M. Gould, Mary A. Morrison; Eastern Washington College of Education, Lillian M. Dickson, Ramond M. Giles, Robert L. Hanrahan, Margaret McGrath, Lovell E. Patmore, Forrest E. Sloan, Harold K. Stevens, Louis Trimble; State College of Washington, David Lapkin, Thor Swanson; Washington University, Ivan N. Mensh; West Liberty State College, Stanley F. Dice, Gilford Frazee, Robert M. Murphy, Charles F. Young; West Virginia University, Frank Gibson, Gerald W. Smith; West Virginia Wesleyan College, Elizabeth Koorkanian; Western College, Lawrence Apgar, Eloise Gompf, Charles Grailcourt, Helen W. Hobart, Marie E. Wells; Westminster College (Missouri), Frank H. Lloyd; Wheaton College (Massachusetts), Isabel Fulton, Melvin D. Sargent; Whitman College, John De Michele; Whittier College, Elmer L. Johnson; Municipal University of Wichita, Horace H. Baker, Jeneva J. Brewer, Sabrina M. Hecht, Andrew J. Lang, Jr., Henry Onsgard, Vergil A. Shipley, Fred W. Snyder, Eugene C. Spangler, Mary J. Woodard; Willamette University, Marguerite E. Berg; College of William and Mary, Lorna N. Burdsall, Kenneth M. Gordon, Robert J. Hart, Abraham Hirsch, Thomas M. Mikula, Robert L. Mooney, J. Kenneth Morland, Virginia W. Northcott, Harry T. Stinson; College of William and Mary (Richmond Professional Institute), William L. Bowden; William Woods College, Thomas N. Bonner, George Latta, Walter W. Linstromberg, Hazel T. Long; Winthrop College, Samuel W. Hahn; Wisconsin State College (River Falls), Irene Huenefeld; Wisconsin State College (Whitewater), Carroll E. Flanagan, James Hellie, Henry G. Lee, Eugenia M. Oole, John F. Pauley, Olive R. Reeve; University of Wisconsin, John R. Barton, Stanley D. Beck, George S. Beery, Charles W. Curtis, Emily P. Dodge, S. Watson Dunn, John Emlen, Burton R. Fisher, Edward L. Green, Melvin W.

Green, Emil Jorgensen, James J. Lichty, John C. Neess, Gerald Pickett, Arlene Ross, Norbert L. Schmitz, Gwen M. Schultz, Sina Spiker, Richard E. Sullivan, Walter A. Wittich, William H. Young; Wittenberg College, Roland H. Roselius.

Yale University, Albert Forgac, Robert E. Lane; Yeshiva University, Leo Jung, Alexander Litman, Joseph H. Lookstein.

Transfers from Junior to Active

University of Buffalo, Arthur L. Kaiser; Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stephen V. Ballou; University of Colorado, John K. Wilcox; Delta State Teachers College, Patrick G. Hogan, Jr.; University of Maryland, Walter S. Black, Jr.; Newark College of Engineering, Hans Freistadt; North Dakota Agricultural College, Robert S. Billings; University of Pittsburgh, Leon A. Bachrach; University of Tampa, Miller K. Adams; Middle Tennessee State College, John A. Patten; Tuskegee Institute, Gerald A. Edwards; Western Reserve University, Ralph L. Shively.

Junior

Bowling Green State University, Lee G. Burchinal, Lois Burkart, David J. Diedrick, Douglas E. Hartzell, Paul W. Jones, Earl Kronenberger; Brandeis University, Robert E. Fidotan; Duke University, Theodore J. Ziolkowski; Iowa State Teachers College, Jean Hinds; University of Kentucky, Harvey H. Berry, Gamal Fawzy; University of Maine, Seldon E. Bernstein; Mount Holyoke College, Julia Johnston; New York University, Gordon M. Ramm; University of North Carolina, James M. Jennings; University of Pittsburgh, Faith Lee; Northwestern University, Robert C. Hart; Stanford University, William M. Armstrong, Stuart G. Cross, Jerry O'Callaghan; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, Virginia L. Hoffman (M.S. Indiana University), Le Mars, Iowa; Marjorie Morse (Ed.D. New York University), New York, N. Y.; Albert W. O'Brien (Ph.D. University of Iowa), Detroit, Mich.

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, the American Library Association (with adaptations for librarians), the American Political Science Association, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations.

West Chester State Teachers College West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939, <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72)	December, 1939
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493)	December, 1941
State Teachers College, ¹ Murfreesboro, Tennessee (December, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 662-667)	May, 1943
Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina (April, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 173-176)	May, 1943
University of Texas, Austin, Texas (Winter, 1944 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 627-634; Autumn, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> pp. 462-465; Summer, 1946 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 374-385)	June, 1946
Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana (Spring, 1949 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 74-111)	March, 1950

¹ Now Middle Tennessee State College.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. Factual data and expressions of personal preference in these notices are published as submitted. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in response to announcements published under key numbers should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Vacancies Reported

Chemistry: The Hebrew Institute of Technology, Haifa, Israel, proposes to appoint a professor of physical chemistry. Applicants should have first-rate professional and academic qualifications, be willing to integrate themselves into the life of the country and, in due course, to teach in Hebrew. Applications with full details should be sent, for transmission to Haifa, to: The American Technion Society, 80 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, New York.

Chemistry: Vacancy exists in chemistry department in small Midwestern Lutheran school. Will welcome applications from professors near or at retirement age. Ph.D. is required. Salary in the area of \$4000 for 9 month's work. V 1308

Economics: Applications are invited for post of teacher of economics in church-related liberal arts college. Prefer person to have Ph.D. and some teaching experience. Some training in sociology also desirable. Appointment as assistant professor or associate professor, depending upon qualifications. Main emphasis on economic theory and history of economic thought. Position open for fall session, beginning September 22, 1952. V 1305

Engineering (Aeronautical, Mechanical, and Electrical): The U.S.A.F. Institute of Technology has several vacancies for qualified professors or engineers to teach on a graduate and undergraduate level in aeronautical, mechanical, and electrical engineering. Employment will be effected in accordance with Civil Service Regulations. Grade levels range from GS-11, \$5940 per annum to GS-13, \$8360 per annum. Applications should be made on Standard Form 57 available at any post office or by letter to the Dean, Resident College, U.S.A.F. Institute of Technology, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Dayton, Ohio.

German: Instructor or assistant professor in state university of the Middle West, for the fall of 1953. Only Ph.D. with major in Germanics considered. Must have experience and special interest in methods and organization of instruction, since position requires supervision and coordination of language teaching. Salary and rank contingent upon qualifications and experience. V 1306

Mathematics: Ph.D. and teaching experience required. Small Midwestern liberal arts college; candidate should be sympathetic to program of Protestant church-affiliated college. Teaching load 16 hours. V 1307

Various foreign universities and colleges have openings for United States professors and instructors. Salaries, duration and subjects to be taught vary from country to country. Send vita and requests for information to Mr. Raymond H. Fisher, IES, Department of State, Washington, D. C.

Teachers Available

Accounting, Finance, Management Subjects, or Administrative Position: 15 years' diversified business experience. 10 years' teaching experience, college students, adults, business executives. Desire financially stable institution that firmly believes in free enterprise system. A.B., M.A., Registered Accountant. Available June, 1952. A 4162

Activities, English, Library: Man, 37, unmarried. M.A. plus 62 quarter hours. Now directing dramatics, school paper, I.Q. and vocational-aptitude testing program, school libraries for small public school system. In college, have taught English composition (communications, technical English, business English), literature ("types"; surveys, English and American), speech, twice directed work in composition. In high school, have taught English. 10 years' college experience, 1½ years' public school; 4 years' recently at Big Ten school; now librarian, activities director. A 4163

Administration, Education: Ph.D., University of California. Man, 35, married, 2 children. 5 years' experience in the management of groups engaged in instruction and research at the college and graduate school levels. Publications. Experience as supervisor of Navy research group. 9 years' college teaching of educational psychology, psychology, engineering, mathematics, and astronomy. Member Sigma Xi, AERA, NEA, Phi Delta Kappa, and other professional societies. Now director of instruction of Air Force officer personnel for guided missile department of major aircraft company. Desire return to college or university career. Available on 30 days' notice. A 4164

Administration, English: Man, 36, veteran, married, 3 children. Harvard Ph.D. 10 years' college teaching experience; 2½ years as assistant dean in liberal arts college. Have taught both English and American literature; special fields: English novel, Victorian literature. Several scholarly articles; 1 book in press, under contract for a second. A 4165

Adult Education: Man, 39, married, 1 child. Ed.D. in administration of adult education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Also graduate B.S. from School of Library Service, Columbia. Interested in teaching and research in discussion leadership, group dynamics, educational psychology and sociology, community organization and human relations. Member Phi Delta Kappa, Kappa Delta Pi, ALA, Adult Education Association. A 4166

Analyst: Member, International Psychoanalytical Association and an affiliate Society (nonmedical, 1943) with research, clinical and teaching background, would like to hear from private colleges and medical schools that would want an analyst for therapeutic work with students. Freedom and opportunity to work essential. Salary secondary. A 4167

Anthropology: Man, 30, married, no children, veteran. Presently, Pacific Area Specialist, U. S. Government. Previously, one year Supervisor of Linguistics in Pacific, U. S. Government; 4 years' instructor in anthropology and in philosophy, Midwestern university; 2 years' Southeast Asia research, U. S. Government. Considerable publication; high recommendations; Ph.D. thesis being completed. Desire teaching. A 4168

Anthropology: Man, 33, married. 6 years' experience teaching anthropology and sociology. Introductory survey, primary economics, religion, comparative

social structure, culture and personality, area courses (Africa, the Americas). Ph.D. requirements complete except thesis in progress. Available summer or fall, 1952.

A 4169

Anthropology: Man, 26, married, 1 child. M.A., University of Washington, working on Ph.D. Major fields: cultural and physical anthropology, folklore, American Indian cultures, especially Pacific North West, ancient Near Eastern culture, museum direction. Field work experience in ethnography in the Lower Fraser Valley, British Columbia, and Okanagan Valley of British Columbia and Washington. Winner of first prize in 1951 Jo Stafford Folklore Contest. Teaching experience. Desire permanent teaching and/or research position at a university or college anywhere in the U. S. or Canada. Available after January 1, 1953.

A 4225

Art: Man, 32, married, veteran, no reserve status. B.F.A. in painting and illustration, Carnegie Tech; M.A. in art history, University of Pittsburgh. 5½ years' experience in university, teaching drawing, pictorial design, painting, art history. Exhibited in East, Midwest, West and South; New York art dealer—Feigl Gallery, 601 Madison Avenue. Member of A.A.U.P., College Art Association of America, and the Archaeological Institute of America. Excellent references on teaching ability. Wife is also an honor graduate of Carnegie Tech, and an experienced commercial artist. Available September, 1952. A 4170

Art: Man, 44, married, 2 children. Ed.D. degree and professional training. 8 years of teaching and administrative experience in undergraduate and graduate work. Exhibitor in major national and international shows. Interested in a teaching and/or administrative position. Available September, 1952. A 4171

Art: Man, 26, married, 1 child; Certificate of Fine Arts, Cooper Union; B.S. in Ed.; M.A.; 2 years' secondary (N.Y.C.), 2 years' college experience, teaching painting, drawing, graphics, art history, and three-dimensional design. Work exhibited in one man show in N.Y.C., and in leading national painting and graphic shows. Available for fall, 1952, anywhere in U. S. for college or professional school. A 4172

Art: Man, Married. B.S. in Ed., M.A., and 4 years of professional art school training. 14 years of teaching and administrative experience, including the past 10 years directing and teaching graduate and undergraduate courses in fine art, advertising and editorial art, art education, and art history. Present position: professor and head of department. Listed in *Who's Who in America*. Interested in teaching and/or administrative position. Can be available in August or September, 1952. A 4173

Art, Audio-Visual Education, and Chinese: Man, M.A., University of California. B.A. in art and Oriental languages; national foreign language and art honor societies. Specialties: water-color, landscapes, lettering, design, etc. Commercial experience in show-card writing and window display and sign-painting. Art works exhibited on Pacific Coast. Excellent references. Available on 30 days' notice. Interested in full-time teaching; seeking assistant professorship. A 4295

Art-Ceramics: Man, 28, married, 1 child. B.S., M.E. (ceramic education), 3 years' college teaching experience, design and ceramics. Exhibited nationally. Excellent references. Available fall, 1952. A 4174

Audio-Visual (Instruction, Administration, Production): Married man, 37, Ph.D. 13 years' unusually broad experience. 6 years' successful college teaching; 2 years as head of college audio-visual center; 3 years as assistant head; 3½ years' military service in film production, distribution, utilization; high-school and adult teaching. Presently teaching part-time in two colleges and serving as audio-visual consultant; member of professional societies, writer, lecturer; strong references; wife has edited national magazines. Available within reasonable period. A 4296

Bacteriologist-Immunologist: Man, 32, married. Ph.D. Academic and research experience. Publications. Desire teaching position in institution with graduate school or where graduate school is being developed. Available autumn, 1952.

A 4175

Bacteriology: Man, 36, married. M.S., Ph.D., microbiology, large Eastern university. Desire teaching and research, departmental responsibilities, university or school of medicine. Experience teaching general and medical bacteriology and related subjects, direction of graduate students. In present position, with school of medicine, 5 years.

A 4176

Biological Sciences: Man, 42, married, 1 child. Ph.D. Desire teaching, research, or departmental responsibility. 16 years' teaching experience in bacteriology, parasitology, mycology, public health, histology, or biology. Head of division of microbiology, but will accept a lower rank in a progressive department. Sigma Xi and professional societies; numerous publications. Excellent references. Available June or September, 1952.

A 4177

Biologist, Botanist: Age 25, married. A.B., M.S., Ph.D. (nearing completion) from prominent Midwestern institution. Training in genetics, botany, associated fields. Member Sigma Xi. Available summer or fall, 1952.

A 4178

Biologist, Zoologist: Man, 31, married, veteran, 1 child. Ph.D. in zoology [vertebrates], University of Michigan, 1951. Presently teaching (in temporary replacement capacity for men on leave) vertebrate morphology, biological sciences, and general zoology in noted Eastern college. Especially competent also to teach natural history, systematics, zoogeography, and related subjects (supplementary interest in vertebrate paleontology). Member of professional and scientific societies, including Phi Sigma and Sigma Xi. 12 scientific articles in American and foreign journals to date, mainly on natural history and relationships of reptiles. Desire teaching position with opportunity for research. Excellent references. Available September, 1952.

A 4179

Botanist (Bacteriology and Mycology; strong Zoology background): Woman; Ph.D. Prefer strong liberal arts college or university with some opportunity for research. Research experience. Listed in professional bibliographies. Publications. Prefer Midwest, Southeast, or California.

A 4180

Business Administration: Woman; M.A. Director of Residence and Dining Halls. 24 years' experience in two leading universities as head of department. Qualified to work on new building programs or to organize housing and food service departments. Credentials on request.

A 4181

Business Administration (Industrial Management, Business Policy, Organization Principles, Economics): Man, 45, married. D.C.S., Harvard. 5 years' teaching experience (3 years' to graduate students only), 24 years' significant business and industrial experience. Interested in both teaching and educational administration.

A 4182

Business Administration and Law: Man, 40, B.S., B.S.L., L.L.B., M.A. in business administration. 10 years' experience in business administration and law courses. Fluent speaker. Excellent classroom teacher. Desire position as assistant professor in American college with good tenure and promotion policy. Available summer, 1952.

A 4183

Business and Economics: Man, 28, veteran, married. A.B., A.M., Stanford University, Ph.D. course and examination requirements fulfilled; dissertation nearing completion; now assistant professor, Western college. Fields of concentration: industrial relations, marketing, economic theory, corporation and public finance, international economics, business and government, statistics. Available for academic appointment, September, 1952.

A 4184

Chemistry, Organic: Ph.D., Age 42. Experienced teacher and research worker (academic and industrial). Considerable administrative experience on under-

graduate and graduate (Ph.D.) levels. Desire full or associate professorship in institution which definitely requires good teaching as well as good research. Consider department headship of small university or college. Available at end of present semester.

A 4209

Chemistry, Physics: Man, 39. Ph.D. in physical chemistry; specialty x-ray diffraction and crystal structure. Want teaching or research position in West or abroad, temporary or permanent.

A 4185

Civil Engineer: Ph.D., 44, 13 years' university teaching experience, as well as in construction industry and research. Invite correspondence regarding permanent position. Teaching interests: soil mechanics, foundation engineering, highways. Can also teach hydraulics (fluid mechanics) and applied mechanics.

A 4186

Classics: Man, 31, married. A.M., Chicago, with year and a half of work completed toward Ph.D. Currently instructor at Midwestern state university. Major: Latin. Minors: Greek, French, and German. Desire post September, 1952.

A 4187

Classics and Ancient History: Man, 30, family. A.M., Harvard; Ph.D. thesis in preparation. 4 years' teaching experience at Midwestern university; publication. Special interests: intellectual history and courses in translation.

A 4188

Drama: Man, married, 2 children. A.B., Harvard; M.F.A., Yale. Professional experience New York City, Pasadena Playhouse; 12 years' college theater teaching and directing, including courses in dramatic literature, playwriting, theater arts (acting, directing, production); experimental production of original scripts; directing variety of styles and productions; organization and direction of successful summer theater. Exceptional references. Interested in additional responsibility and advancement.

A 4189

Economics: Ph.D. Man, 35, married, one child. Excellent references on teaching and research ability. Experience: 12 years of teaching and research in major institutions and U. S. Departments of Agriculture and Commerce. Published works in national journals. Specialty: economic theory, history of economic thought, production and land economics. Research interests: Application of economics to agricultural and oil industries. Preference: Southwest Available: January, 1953.

A 4297

Economics and Business Administration (Insurance, International Economics, Foreign Trade, Economic History; also Business Law, Marketing, Investments): Man, 44, Ph.D. Associate professor, college near Los Angeles, Calif.; also University of California. Practical experience in insurance and foreign trade. Available for academic appointment East or West Coast, September, 1952.

A 4190

Economics and Business Administration (Public Finance, Money and Banking, Corporation Finance, Principles of Economics): Man, 38. 12 years' teaching and government experience. Ph.D. Seek appointment as associate professor or professor. Available September, 1952.

A 4191

Economics and Commerce and Finance (Economic Theory, Marketing, Advertising, Retailing, Salesmanship, Labor Problems): Man, 30. B.S., economics, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania; M.B.A., University of Michigan; 5 years' business experience, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ years' teaching at an Eastern university.

A 4192

Economics or Economics and Sociology (Consumer Economics, Comparative Economic Systems, Labor, Public Finance, Social Security, Money and Banking, International Economic Problems—War; also Courses in Sociology with Marriage and the Family as a specialty): Ph.D., Illinois. 18 years' college teaching experience, 7 years' industrial experience, 1 year social work. Foremost interest is in teaching. Man, 49, married, 2 children. Available June or September, 1952.

A 4193

Education: Man. M.A., Haverford, history; Ph.D., Western Reserve, education. Guidance, occupations, clinical psychology. Experienced elementary to university. Wife, elementary and secondary school teacher and office experience.

A 4194

Education: Man, 44, married. Doctorate in Education, 1948. High-school teacher, then 11 years of college faculty experience. Specialties: secondary education, history and philosophy of education, research methods, problems of adolescence. Professional and honorary memberships and activities. Books and periodical publications. Would consider full-time and/or summer positions.

A 4249

Education (Social Studies Teacher Training): Man, early forties, excellent health. Ed.D. in teaching of American history. Editorial and public school teaching experience. Write widely in educational field; book critic and lecturer. Presently professor of American history and chairman of the social studies department in a teachers college training only elementary school teachers. Not interested in administration; interested in teaching and writing. Would like professorship or associate professorship in institution training high-school teachers. Available for September, 1952 or 1953.

A 4195

Education or Physical Education (double major): Man, 31, married, Ed.D. 7 years' teaching, coaching, and administrative experience. Prefer position in institution offering teaching training program. Now affiliated with strong liberal arts college. Member A.A.U.P.; Phi Delta Kappa; Phi Beta Kappa; and other organizations. Some publications. Available September. Excellent references.

A 4196

Education (Public School Administration and/or Elementary Education): Man, single, 35. M.A., candidate for Ed.D., Phi Delta Kappa, Epsilon Pi Tau. 12 years' experience with the major position in the elementary field, including public school administration and university teaching. Have had experience on all grade levels in six different states. Besides regular teaching and administration have been engaged in research, speaking, surveys and professional writing. Prefer to work in the Southeast, Southwest, or Far West, but will consider any locality. Invite all correspondence regarding interesting and challenging positions to start September, 1952. Seek associate professorship.

A 4197

Educational-Vocational Guidance: Man, 35, married. Ph.D. (Columbia). Now completing fourth year clinical experience in community agency. 6 years in public school education. Desire position teaching applied psychology and/or education. Now part-time college teacher.

A 4198

Electrical-Agricultural Engineering, Applied Physics, Soils: Man, 42, married, 4 children, Lutheran. B.Sc., M.Sc., Ag.E., some work on Ph.D. Licensed to practice professional engineering (Oregon, 1939; Washington, 1946; Idaho and California pending). Six years university teaching, 6 years in industries, and nearly 10 years' accredited U. S. Civil Service experience, GS-11 rating, E.E. Phy. Sc. Adm. Publications. *Who's Who on the Pacific Coast, Who Knows—and What*, Tau Beta Pi, Alpha Kappa Lambda, A.A.U.P., A.A.A.S., A.A.E., A.S.E.E., A.I.E.E. Desire connection as professor, department head, dean of engineering, salary about \$6000.

A 4300

English: Man, 59, unmarried. A.B., Haverford; Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania, in American literature. Experience: 20 years in liberal arts and teachers colleges, 2 years' secondary schools, 8 years' business. Available September, 1952 for college or prep school.

A 4199

English: Man, 31, married, no children, veteran. M.A., Ph.D. nearly completed, Columbia. 5 years' college English teaching experience in and around New York City. Major field: American literature. Minor fields: Medieval English literature and Romantic literature. Credentials available upon request.

Seeking teaching position with possibilities for permanent association. Location of college a secondary consideration. Full-time basis of employment the important factor.

A 4200

English: Man, 34, veteran. A.M., Harvard; Ph.D., Boston University. 2 years' experience in Army educational programs, including teaching at Shriverham American University, England. 7 years' experience at large New England university, teaching undergraduates in college of liberal arts and school of education as well as graduate students. Have taught freshman English, history of English literature, modern drama, American drama, comparative drama. Have had scholarships and fellowship. Member of Phi Beta Kappa and professional societies. Available July, 1952 or thereafter.

A 4201

English: Man, 29, single. A.B., Litt. M. from the University of Pittsburgh. 3 years' plus two summers' college teaching. Major fields: American and English literature. College courses taught: Shakespeare, American Literature Survey, English Literature Survey, Introduction to Prose Fiction, and Composition. Greatly interested in Shakespeare as Living Theatre. Organized and taught special audio-visual Shakespeare course for education majors. Broad cultural background: theatre, music, fine arts, travel. Primary interest in effective teaching. Excellent references. Available June, 1952.

A 4202

English: Man, 32, married. Ph.D. just completed. 6 years of experience in large universities, composition, literary surveys, humanities, and other courses. Nineteenth century interests, and publications in preparation. Available immediately.

A 4203

English: Man, 30, Ph.D., thesis in American fiction. Fields: American literature, seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth century English literature, creative and remedial writing. 3 years' college teaching experience. Research. Seek position as an instructor or assistant professor.

A 4204

English: Woman, 35. Ph.D., leading Eastern university. Experience: 8 years in two universities teaching freshman and sophomore courses, American literature, the novel, Victorian literature. Major field: American literature. Excellent references. Available September, 1952.

A 4206

English: Woman. M.A., leading university. Sixty hours' additional graduate work. Specialties: novel nineteenth century, freshman composition. Experience in East and Middle West in both state and church colleges. Prefer position in liberal arts college. Interested primarily in teaching. Excellent references on scholarship and teaching ability. Available summer or fall, 1952.

A 4207

English: Man, 27, single. A.M., Columbia University. Completing dissertation for Ph.D. 5 years' college teaching at large Eastern university. Major field: English and American drama. Minor field: Elizabethan literature. Desire position with college with or near good library facilities. Available summer or fall, 1952.

A 4208

English: Man, 34, married, 1 child. Bachelor Social Sciences; Ph.D., English, Johns Hopkins. 9½ years' teaching experience. Publications in eighteenth century English literature and modern American literature. Can teach courses in creative writing, criticism, or literary history. Available fall, 1952.

A 4210

English: Man, 30, married, 1 child. M.A. All Ph.D. work save dissertation completed. 5 years' teaching experience. Special interest: American literature. Courses taught: freshman English; sophomore English survey; advanced exposition (juniors); creative writing (juniors, seniors, and graduate); "depth" reading of imaginative literature (sophomores and juniors). Available fall, 1952.

A 4211

English: Woman, 29. Ph.D., February, 1950. Fulbright Grant to England, 1949-50. Extensive travel in Europe. Experience: 3 years' full-time teaching in state university, 2 as an assistant, 1 as an instructor. Library experience.

Composition, early periods of English literature, with emphasis on Renaissance literature. A 4212

English: Man, 32, married. 6 years' university teaching experience. Ph.D. to be granted June, 1952, with emphasis in drama and American literature. Ford Foundation Fellowship, 1951-52, for research in American drama. Have taught the following courses: composition; "survey"; "types"; American literature; American drama; World drama. Professional writing experience; drama critic, radio writer, research-biographer. Member of MLA, AAUP, NCTE. Seek position in East. Available September, 1952. A 4213

English: Woman, 42. Ph.D., George Peabody College for Teachers; M.A. and A.B. from two leading universities; study in England. Experience: 12 years, liberal arts and teachers colleges; 2, supervisor, teacher training schools; 4, public high schools. Have had experience in teaching almost all phases of English, but prefer survey courses in American, English, and World literature. Excellent references. No geographical limitations. Available September, 1952. A 4214

English: Man, 45, married, 5 children. Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa, *Who's Who in America*, Methodist. 20 years' experience as professor and head of department. Publications, including 3 books and a multi-volume work now in press. Fields: American and English (nineteenth century) literature, American history and civilization, also specialist in teacher training. Member N.C.T.E. Curriculum Commission. Last four years spent in editorial and research work with Rockefeller grant. Should like combination graduate and undergraduate teaching, editorial or administrative appointment if suitable, beginning September, 1952. A 4215

English, Publicity, Administration (Adult Education, Supply Purchasing, Food Services): Woman, 35, single. M.A., English linguistics; B.A., journalism. 2 years' public school teaching, including band. 3 years, instructor and assistant professor, large state university, in adult education. Overseas war service, Asia. Undergraduate education. All-American honors college weekly, Mortar Board, others. Publications. Prefer position in Middle- or North Atlantic states at small private institution. Available now. A 4216

Far Eastern (Chinese and Japanese) Languages and Literatures: Assistant professor, man (Cauc.), Ph.D., 35, family. Major field: Chinese literature; long and short-term publication-research in process, currently state university (tenure). Desire position in institution with actual or contemplated major undergraduate curriculum in Far Eastern studies, at salary more nearly commensurate with efforts, and with some assistance in Japanese language. Available fall, 1952. A 4217

Fine Arts: Man, 36, married, 3 children. B.S. Lycée Français Montevideo, Uruguay, equivalent of Ph.D. in architecture, University of Uruguay, Fellowship Coordinator of inter-American affairs and State Department. Former professor of fine arts at National School of Fine Arts of Uruguay; set designer for the National Theater of Uruguay. Professor of painting at a museum in the U. S. Experienced teacher of murals, composition, technique and history of art. Works in museums. Invited to show at Carnegie international show in 1952 and at Pan American Union in Washington, D. C. Seek position in good college or university. Available June, 1952 or September. A 4218

Fine Arts and Humanities: Man, 46, single. 15 years' teaching experience in Eastern university. European and American education. At present art curator in major American museum. Publications; administrative experience. *Who's Who*. Wide experience in humanities (integrated art courses) and languages. A 4219

Foreign Languages (German, Italian, French): Man, American and European experience. Want opportunity in institution where an interest exists in training teachers. Ready to accept administrative duties. A 4220

French: Woman, native of France, former attorney, years of teaching experience in best colleges and universities, U. S. A. Seek position 1952-53. Lic. ès Lett., Sorbonne and Lic. en Droit, 3 books published, a reader coming out in fall. Available June, 1952. A 4221

French, Italian, German, General Literature: Man, Ph.D., widely travelled, highly skilled, American citizen, want good opportunity. A 4222

French, Russian, Linguistics: Man, 27; wife native French; Ph.D. in Romance and Slavic linguistics; residence in France, extensive travel. 4 years' experience teaching French and Russian in outstanding colleges. Broad knowledge of French, Russian literatures. Available June, 1952. A 4223

French, Spanish: Veteran, 34, married. Doctorate, Sorbonne. Now teaching Spanish, small junior college. Seek position in larger school. W. R. Marisa, Box 35, Fredericktown, Pennsylvania.

General Literature, Philosophy, Western Civilization: Man, experienced teacher, mature age, Ph.D. Available now. A 4224

Geography, Meteorology, Biology: Man, 48, married, 2 children. Ph.D. 20 years' experience. Foreign travels: Europe; Central America. Research work in human geography and meteorology. Several publications. Prefer California or near to California. Wife, 31, teacher of ballet and dance. 10 years' experience. A 4226

Geography, Sociology: Man, 33, single. B.A. (Hons.) geography, Univ. of Calif. Ph.D., 1952. 2 years' teaching; 2 years' university research fellowship. 2 years' independent research. Extensive study in the physical and social sciences. Interested in research and/or teaching. Available September, 1952. A 4302

Geology: Retired professor, A.M., Yale, 37 years' teaching experience; seeking teaching position, full or part-time, regular term or summer school. A 4227

German: Man, 49, married, Protestant. German-born American citizen; in U. S. since 1925. Education: State Teachers College, Germany; B.Sc., M.A., large U. S. Eastern university; Ph.D. requirements complete except for unfinished thesis. Teaching experience: Germany—3 years, public schools; U. S.—9 years in private schools and 5 years in present position at state university in the South. Member AATG, AAUP, SAMLA. Desire change of location on account of climate. West or Middle West preferred. Available after June, 1952. A 4228

German: All levels, German cultural history, German philosophy, also scientific German; doctoral dissertation in German; publications; experience in both continents; also knowledge of other languages; highest references; want opportunity for summer or fall. A 4229

German: Man, married, no children, native German, American citizen. LL.D. from German university. 7 years' successful teaching in the U. S., all courses in German language and literature, including scientific German; foreign travel; excellent references; at present U. S. Government. Interested in permanent post. A 4230

German (Comparative Literature, Administration): Man, 37, married, 2 children, German-born, U. S. Army veteran. Ph.D. (N.Y.U.), M.A. (U.N.C.), taught in New York, North Carolina, Michigan, Arkansas. Travelled extensively in Europe and the Far East. Member: Phi Beta Kappa, M.L.A., A.A.T.G., A.A.U.P. Seek teaching position in German and/or Comp. Lit. Dept. (especially English, French, German); would welcome part-time duty in college administration. Available now. A 4231

German, French: Man, very experienced, excellent references, available for summer or fall. A 4232

Guidance, Counseling, Education, Student Personnel: Man, 31, veteran, married,

A.B., sociology, 1941; A.M., education, 1950; B.S., psychology, 1951; Ed.D., guidance, 1952. Also 2 years in professional social work curriculum. Experienced in vocational and educational counseling and in job placement. Associate, Amer. Psych. Assoc.; Amer. Ed. Research Assoc.; Full member, Amer. Assoc. of Social Workers; Active member, Amer. College Personnel Assoc.; Amer. Assoc. of Group Workers; Professional member, Nat'l. Vocational Guidance Assoc.; Kappa Delta Pi.

A 4233

History: Man, 36, married, 2 children. Ph.D. Veteran with European travel. Fields: American and European history. Much experience teaching comparative governmental institutions, basic American government and constitutional law. 8 years' teaching experience, 6 in college. Currently with extension division of The Pennsylvania State College. Planning post-doctoral study and travel. Available spring, 1952.

A 4234

History: Man, 29. Ph.D., University of North Carolina. 5 years' college teaching, Southeast and Midwest. Full-time research 1951-52 as ACLS Scholar. Teaching interests, European history, especially since 1815. Research field, Germany since 1867. Several published articles, book in progress. Military and industrial administrative experience. Family. Available September, 1952, possibly July, 1952. John Snell, 425 Margarita Avenue, Palo Alto, California.

History: Man, 30, married, 2 children, veteran, but now 4F. Ph.D. expected from University of Chicago, summer, 1952. Major fields: Early Modern and Modern Europe, and Russian, Latin-American History and Expansion of Europe. 2 years' college teaching experience includes, in addition to above: freshman survey of Western civilization, Far Eastern history, comparative government and international relations. Publications. Interested in both teaching and research. Speak German, French and Dutch fluently. Handle for reading and research purposes: Spanish, Italian, Portuguese and Russian. Extensive European travel. File of references available through Bureau of Vocational Guidance, University of Chicago. Prefer small liberal arts college where personal contact with students is possible. Available September, 1952. H. A. Schmitt, 6012 Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

History: Man, 31, married, Baptist. A.B., M.A., Indiana University; candidate for Ph.D., Yale University. Major field, Reformation. 2 years' experience in Midwestern state university teaching ancient and medieval history, the Renaissance and the Reformation, modern European history to 1914, and United States history. Available September, 1952. Frank J. Wray, 327 Temple Street, New Haven 11, Connecticut.

History: Man, married. Ph.D., American history (Harvard); M.A., modern European history (Minnesota). 12 years of college and university teaching. At present visiting professor of American history at state university after 3 years of compensated research under Foundation. Books; numerous articles. Literary and folklore interests and publications. Special fields: American social, economic and cultural history; history of the West; colonial history. Seek position in university or college with good library; opportunity for graduate instruction would be welcomed. West or Midwest preferred, but not required. Available September, 1952.

A 4235

History: Man, 37. Ph.D. and four other academic degrees. 8 years' college and graduate school teaching, last 5 years as chairman of department. 9 months of European travel, including foreign study. Available September, 1952.

A 4236

History: Man, 30, married, 2 children. Ph.D., Midwestern university. 4 years' college teaching. Assistant professor. Major fields: American history, Civil War to present, and historiography. Subjects taught: modern Europe, Medieval, all phases of American, and historiography. Several articles published, book near completion. A.A.U.P., Phi Beta Kappa, and Phi Kappa Phi.

Excellent references. Veteran with no reserve status. A 4237

History: Man, 46, married, 3 children. B.A. (high honors in classics), Ph.D., Yale. Major field: Classics and Ancient History; many articles published, book in progress; have taught Latin, Greek, Ancient, Medieval, and European history. Available immediately. References. 12 years of college teaching. A 4292

History or Economics: Man, 37, married, 2 children. Ph.D. (American and European history and economics). 7 years' teaching experience. Author of book and articles. Listed in biographical publications. Now associate professor with permanent tenure at a teachers college. Strong interest in economics. Desire change for financial and professional advancement. Interested in doing both research and good teaching. Nelson Klose, 24 East Sixth, Edmond, Okla. A 4238

History, English: Man. B.A., Swarthmore, 1949. Major, history; minor, English. Highest honors, Phi Beta Kappa, Rhodes Scholar, 1949-52; Oxford D. Phil. in Medieval History, spring, 1952. Return U.S., July. Interested in teaching position in college. A 4239

History and Far Eastern International Studies: Man, 33, family dependents. B.A. (in humanities, in China, 1939); M.A., Ph.D. (in history, Michigan). Some experience in college teaching; full-time post-doctoral research scholar 1951-52. Available immediately. Desire teaching or/and research position in fields: China, Korea, Soviet Union, modern European and American world affairs, Chinese history, historiography, social ideas and literature. Requests for career sketch welcome; no obligation. A 4239

History and International Relations: Man, 32. B.Sc. (Econ.), London School of Economics and Political Science; M.A. and Ph.D., University of California. Fields of specialization: Russian and Central European history, diplomatic history, European governments. Lecturer (summer session), University of California. Available September, 1952. A 4240

International Relations: Man, bachelor, 34. B.S. in Math-Physics; A.M. in history and international relations; 1 year left for Ph.D. 5 years' teaching experience; 3 years on college level in physics and engineering. Army I and E experience and social science teaching. Discussion groups' and lecturing experience. Fields of specialization: international relations and organization, Russian history, U. S. diplomatic history, Far East, European international relations. Special field of research: Russo-Turkish relations. Available after June 1, 1952. Especially interested in liberal arts department of scientific or engineering school. A 4241

International Relations, Political Science: Man, 29. Desire teaching and/or research position. A.B., political science; M.A. and Ph.D., international relations, Syracuse University. General specialties, international relations and comparative government. U.S.S.R. area specialist; specific concentration also in international law and international administration. Can also teach American government and constitutional law. Research facility in Russian, German, French, Spanish. Teaching experience at undergraduate and graduate levels as assistant professor. Book on Soviet Union in progress. A 4298

Journalism: Man, 33, married. A.B. in history; M.S. in journalism (Columbia). Ed.D. in social sciences in progress at N.Y.U. Experience as reporter, city editor, wire editor, correspondent, news service editor (U.P.), publicity writer, public relations consultant, free lance magazine writer. 5 years' experience as professor of journalism. Prefer the East, with opportunity to continue studies during summer. A 4242

Latin, Greek, Ancient History: Man, 34, married, 2 children. Ph.D. 8 years' experience teaching classical languages and related subjects. Publications. Listed in *Directory of American Scholars*. Available September, 1952. A 4243

Librarian, Head: Man; graduate library school and M.A. degree, some Ph.D. work; experienced head of active college library, now employed; knowledge of building planning, audio-visual services, library instruction; desire position as head librarian of outstanding liberal arts college or university; \$6000. A 4244

Mathematics: A.B., B.S., M.A. degrees; proximate Ph.D. Membership A.A.U.P., American Math. Society, Pi Mu Epsilon. Experienced university and secondary. Civil Service College Professor (Mathematics) rating GS-11. Available immediately. A 4245

Mathematics: Man, 40, and wife, 35, both Ph.D.'s. Extensive teaching experience. Desire positions in same college or adjacent ones, preferably in Northeast or Northwest. A 4299

Mental Hygiene, Social and Abnormal Psychology: Man, Ph.D., actually in private practice; ready to consider again a teaching opportunity, or administration. A 4246

Metallurgical Engineering: Expect Ph.D. in February, 1953. Formerly assistant professor of metallurgy in fully accredited university. Complete references upon request. Available February, 1953. A 4291

Music: Man, married, 49. Diplomas Royal Academy of Music and Royal College of Organists, London, England; Mus. B., Mus. D., University of Toronto, Canada. Extensive experience as organist, lecturer, choral and orchestral conductor. Last 8 years college teaching. Major fields: musicology, theory and composition. Desire university appointment with advancement from present rank of assistant professor in premier university college. A 4247

Music: Man, married. B.M., M.M. College teacher 28 years, with administrative experience. Theoretical music, composition, piano. Conducted oratorio. Considerable research. Published book, 3 manuscripts, compositions. Excellent health. Listed in *Directory of American Scholars, Who's Who in Music, Who Knows—And What*. Member A.A.U.P., A.S.A., N.A.A.C.C., M.T.N.A. Available September, 1952. A 4248

Music: Man, married. B.M. in voice from Cincinnati Conservatory of Music; M.S.M. from Union Theological Seminary, New York. Oratorio, opera, glee club, church choir, radio experience as both singer and director. At present director of large civic chorus and oratorio society. Available for summer of 1952 to teach voice and choral conducting and to train a choral group. A 4250

Music (Choral Conductor and Teacher): Man, 46, married, assistant professor. A.B., A.M. (music). Solfège diploma. Advanced choral conducting at Berkshire Music Center ("Tanglewood"). 17 years' choral conducting experience with adult groups, of which 9 are in college and university. Listed in *Who Is Who in Music, Who's Who in the Midwest, Directory of American Scholars*. Desire choral professorship as visiting teacher (in lieu of sabbatical), or permanent position with more choral work and other music teaching (e.g., music bibliography) than in present post. A 4251

Music (Concert Pianist-Artist Teacher): Man, 46, single. B.A. Fellowships: Julliard Foundation. Pupil and assistant to late world-renowned Russian pianist; three New York recitals; concertized extensively throughout U. S., Canada, and Hawaii; 26 years' teaching experience, 5 years' college level experience; listed in *Who's Who in America, Who's Who in the Midwest, Who's Who in Music*, and *Directory of American Scholars*. Member A.A.U.P., Phi Mu Alpha, Am. Musicological Society, Am. Oriental Society, and Am. Fed. Musicians. Rotarian. Desire permanent position in college or university, in or near music center. Highest references. Available for summer session 1952 and thereafter. A 4252

Music (Music Education, Instrumental Music, Music History): Man, 38, married, family; veteran, but not in reserve. B. Music in education, M. Music;

second year on Doctorate in music education, dissertation in progress. Experienced in public school work; 5 years' college and university. Position desired in music education, instrumental music. Specialties: strings, string class methods, string ensemble, and orchestra. Experience in conducting symphony orchestra, playing violin and viola in orchestra. Desire head of department, liberal arts college or teachers college, or head of instrumental music in state university. Available September, 1952.

A 4253

Music (Piano—experienced and competent in other areas of music): Man, 28, B.M. and M.M. from University of Southern California; some work toward Ph.D. Graduate professional training in France (Casadesus and Boulanger). Experienced in teaching on the college level; private piano, class piano, music history, music appreciation, harmony, and solfège. Taught class piano in public schools. Definite asset in developing class piano program in college or in preparatory department. Able to present complete piano recitals and teach regular load (piano recordings sent on response). Enthusiastic and adaptable. Member of A.A.U.P.

A 4254

Music (Piano, Theory and Harmony, Appreciation): Woman, mature age. European conservatory, excellent references, available on reasonable notice.

A 4255

Music (Theory, History and Literature): Man, married. Ph.D., musicology; published editions and articles. Pianist-composer; many works published. Professional activities here and abroad: concert accompanist, operatic coach, CBS staff arranger, choral conductor. 5 years' college teaching. Interested in music department with serious curriculum.

A 4256

Music (Theory, Music History, Music Education): Man, 42, married. B.M., M.A., Ph.D. 17 years of unusually broad teaching experience. Author successful textbook, magazine articles; recognized composer. Thorough knowledge of field, excellent instructor. Available September, 1952.

A 4257

Music (Vocal, Choral, Music Education, Opera): Man, 36, married. Mus. B., M.A. in Music, 80 hours' Post-Master's study. 7 years' university and conservatory teaching; 11 years' voice teaching; 20 years' concert, oratorio, radio, singing; 10 years' choral conducting; 4 years' opera workshop direction. Available fall, 1952.

A 4258

Philosophy: Man, 33. Ph.D., Columbia. 8 years' teaching experience; deeply interested in teaching as an art. Books published; manuscripts ready or in preparation; esthetics, psychiatry and religion, comparative education. Broad humanistic interests.

A 4259

Philosophy: Man, 30, family. M.A.; Harvard Ph.D. to be granted June, 1952, or at latest February, 1953. Phi Beta Kappa. 4 years' teaching experience; history, introduction, logic, and ethics. Background in psychology; B.A. in English. At present a teaching fellow at Harvard. Available any time after June, 1952.

A 4260

Philosophy or Combination of Philosophy and Comparative Literature (German, French, Spanish), Philosophy and Psychology, Philosophy and Social Research Techniques: Man. Ph.D. and M.A., Harvard. B.A., Stanford. Teaching experience in philosophy, labor economics, social research. Numerous publications. 4 years' study and teaching in Europe and Latin-America. Available fall, 1952.

A 4261

Philosophy, Humanities: Man, middle twenties, veteran, family. Degrees: B.A., Redlands; M.A., Boston; Ph.D., residence completed and thesis in process, Harvard. Can teach usual undergraduate courses, and, if necessary, psychology and religion. Teaching experience. Publications. Member A.A.U.P. At present on scholarship at Harvard. Prefer position in Far West. Available February, 1953.

A 4262

Philosophy, Sociology: Man, Ph.D., many years of experience; also ready to consider administration. Available for summer and (or) fall. A 4263

Physics: 10 years' university physics; physical science; 2 years' electronics industry; desire return to academic atmosphere. 39 years of age. A 4264

Physics: B.S. in physics (honors in Physics); Ed.M. residence completed for doctorate. 6 years of teaching college physics in Eastern teachers college, also elementary meteorology, photography, physical science survey. Desire warm, dry climate. Available at once. A 4265

Political Science: Man, 37, single. LL.M., Warsaw; LL.D., Paris. 4 years, assistant professor at Canadian university and visiting professor at another Canadian university. Veteran. Several years' research. Publications. Perfect knowledge of French, German, Polish, Russian. Working knowledge of Spanish, Italian. East and West European residence. Specialization: Soviet Union and Mideast Europe area, law and government, civilizations, history. Extensive travels. Attended several international meetings of learned bodies. Interested in both teaching and research. Details with references on request. A 4266

Political Science: Man, 31, W.W. II veteran, but no reserve status. A.B. *summa cum laude*, M.A., Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa. 4 years' college teaching and 3 years' administrative experience. Seek appointment teaching American government, political parties, or comparative government, preferably in Eastern or Northeastern college or university. Available July 1, 1952. A 4267

Political Science: A.B., Vassar, Ph.D., Radcliffe; foreign study, college and university teaching experience; administrative experience on staff of American Association of University Women; past five years in high-level educational position in Federal Government; publications and lectures. Interested in professorship with international emphasis or headship of department. A 4293

Political Science: Man, 31, family, veteran. Master's degree. Plan to complete doctoral degree in July, 1952. 4 years' university teaching. Currently teaching introductory courses and public administration. Capacities primarily in public administration, American government (national, state, local), international law and relations. Seeking permanent location. Available September, 1952. A 4268

Political Science and Business Law: Man, 33, married. B.S. in social science and education, I.L.B., graduate study in political science, practical legal experience as a member of the bar. Wish to teach political science and/or business law. Veteran with 5 years' active duty; foreign travel. Available September, 1952. A 4205

Political Science, History: Man, 41, married, 3 children. Ph.D. Several years department head in small college, plus university teaching. Broad experience in teaching, writing, and government service—administrative and legislative. One book and numerous articles in field of American government. Specialized in state and local government and administration. Listed in *Who Knows—And What, Leaders in Education, Who's Who in American Education*, etc. Textbook in preparation. Salary \$4500 or more. A 4269

Psychologist: Experienced professor, educational administrator and director of public relations. Available for teaching and/or administrative position. Ph.D. from leading university. A 4303

Psychology: Man, 31, nearly through doctoral dissertation. Available September, 1952. Interested in general, experimental, and theoretical areas; and doing research. A 4270

Psychology: Man, 31, married. Ph.D., Columbia. 5 years' teaching experience large urban university; taught undergraduate courses in general, experimental physiological, comparative, and social psychology. Member A.A.U.P., Sigma

Xi, A.P.A., E.P.A. Desire opportunity to teach both social science and natural science psychology. Prefer institution with some research facilities. Available September, 1952. A 4271

Psychology: Man, 31, Ph.D., highly qualified for research and teaching. Looking for position where opportunities will be given for intellectual creativity, and accomplishments will be rewarded. Interested in application of theoretical methods of natural science to problems of human behavior. Backward-looking administrators need not reply. A 4272

Psychology and Education: Man, 39, married. Ed.D., Indiana University; 10 years' experience teaching secondary, college, and university. Publications; A.P.A., Phi Delta Kappa, other professional organizations, prefer liberal Mid-western college or small university and would consider other progressive areas. A 4273

Psychology (Statistics, Test Construction, and Industrial): Man, 48, A.B., Stanford University, Ph.D., Ohio State University. Listed in *Who's Who in America*, *American Men of Science*, *Directory of American Scholars*, *Who Knows—and What*. 9 years' teaching experience at four large colleges and universities. Research experience: 5 years in government, 11 years with industrial organizations. Officially commanded by Army and Navy for direction of research project during World War II. Presently located in state college, but prefer teaching in large university. 57 publications. Member Sigma XI, Psychometric Society; Fellow, A.P.A., A.A.S.; etc. A 4294

Public Relations, Journalism: Man, 32, married, Protestant. All but dissertation on Ph.D. in journalism to be completed by August. Experience: 6 years' teaching plus 5 years' practical journalism work, including 3 years as public relations director of teachers college. Can handle student publications, official publications, publicity, other activities. Workbook. A.E.J., P.D.K., S.D.X., A.A.U.P. Want journalism and/or public relations in state college in Southwest; will consider areas and private colleges. A.B. and M.A., Colorado State College of Education; Ph.D. work, University of Missouri. A 4274

Retailing and Distributive Education: Man, 31, M.A., work toward Ph.D. Experience: 5 years' college, 5 years' evening school—adult education. Extensive retail-trade experience. Member, American Vocational Association, Phi Delta Kappa. Available June, 1952. A 4275

Russian and French (Russian—all phases; French—beginners' preferred): Man, married, native Russian; graduate of the Imperial University of Moscow, Russia; M.A. and Ph.D. resident requirements completed, Western University (U. S.); 9 years' experience in languages teaching; 5 years in teaching Russian literature; co-author of grammar (Russian); intermediate Russian reader, 1952. Widely travelled in U. S. and Europe. Veteran. Available July, 1952. A 4276

Russian, or German, French, and Russian: Woman, American citizen, mature age, highest references. Available at once. A 4277

Sociology: Man, 33, married. M.A., Yale University; Ph.D. requirements completed, except thesis. 5 years' college teaching. A 4278

Sociology: Man, 35, married. 6 years' experience teaching sociology and anthropology (about half and half). Introd., social theory, regional sociol. of U. S., race and minority relations, social changes, etc. Ph.D. requirements complete except thesis (social anth.) in progress. Available summer or fall, 1952. A 4279

Sociology: Man, 41, married. 4 years' full-time college teaching experience, plus experience as teaching assistant. Taught social disorganization, juvenile delinquency, criminology, principles, social problems, collective behavior, co-operative movement within past year. Ph.D. Travelled widely. Accustomed to public speaking. Published various articles. A 4280

Sociology: Man, 30, married, 2 children, veteran. Ph.D., University of Colorado.

3 years' college teaching experience. Introd., theory, race and minority problems, criminology, soc. instit. Seeking position in state college, liberal arts college or university. Excellent references. Available September, 1952. A 4281

Sociology (Also Elementary Economics): Man, Ph.D., want opportunity in progressive institution. A 4282

Spanish: Ph.D., native Spanish-American, married, 2 children, American citizen, veteran, early forties, 7 years' experience at leading Midwestern university. Several publications; interested in teaching and research. Spanish and Spanish-American literatures. Available September, 1952. A 4283

Spanish (Language and Literature, all aspects): Man, 51, married, no children, Protestant. B.S., Boston University; A.M., Harvard; Ph.D., University of Chicago. Special fields: Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Quevedo, Golden Age, sixteenth century religious renaissance in Spain, and Spanish mystics. Experience at large Eastern universities and as head of Spanish departments. Spanish-American residence. A 4284

Spanish (Language and Philosophy): Man, 34, married, 3 children, Catholic. B.A., University of Panama, Ph.D., University of Bogota, Columbia. Experience at large Eastern and Midwestern universities. Available September, 1952. A 4301

Speech and Dramatics: Man, 27, married, 1 child. B.S. and A.M., Columbia University. 2 years' experience teaching undergraduate and graduate speech and dramatics at large, well-known woman's college. Specialties include speech education, group discussion, technical theatre and children's theatre. Seek to establish speech and drama courses in college not presently offering same, or desire position in established department. Enterprising, industrious, trustworthy; excellent references. A 4285

Speech-English: Specialist in radio-television, dramatic art, literature, history of the drama and dramatic criticism, speech (including discussion, interpretation and fundamentals). M.A. from a major university. Certificates from professional schools, American and English. Professional experience in both theater and radio, here and abroad. The author of many articles, both popular and scholarly, and of a forthcoming book. The producer of radio forums. Administrator of top-flight professional staff. Currently teaching radio, television, and film on undergraduate and graduate levels, the director of a radio workshop producing on metropolitan stations and heard in international hookup. Woman, early thirties, unmarried. Hold and seek rank of assistant professor. A 4286

Student Personnel Service (Educational and Vocational Guidance, Registrar, Admissions, Alumni, or Placement Officer): M.A. in psychological services, Columbia University, 1949. Additional graduate study administration Claremont. Summer Session University of Michigan, A.P.A., A.A.U.P. Delegate Third National Training Laboratory in Group Development, conducted jointly by National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan. Single woman. Prefer West. Extensive experience. A 4287

Television: Man, 31, single. B.S., M.A., considerable work on Ph.D. High school and college teaching experience. Member A.A.U.P. and I.R.E. Television experience gained in Manhattan. Desire position as educational television producer-director. A 4288

Zoology: Man, 37, veteran, married, 1 child. B.A., Whittier; M.A., University of California; expect Ph.D. early 1953, California. Major fields: ecology, vertebrate zoology, wildlife conservation, ornithology; minor fields: general botany, comparative physiology, genetics and evolution. 3 years' experience in laboratory teaching; 3 summers' teaching full course (conservation) at field station; 1½ years' experience as museum technician (vertebrates); research scholarships. Sigma Xi, A.A.A.S. member. Extensive field experience in California and west-

ern Nevada, some in Arizona and in Northeast. Prefer Pacific Coast, Southwest, Northeast, Southeast in that order. Available September, 1952 or February, 1953.

A 4289

Zoology: Man, married. M.S., botany; Ph.D., zoology. 20 years' experience. Can teach general zoology, invertebrate zoology and general biology, including parasitology. Major in zoology at Cornell. Minors botany and bacteriology. Several publications. Associate professorship desired or chance for advancement, East preferred.

A 4290